

The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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The Washington Bi-Centennial and the History Classroom

Historical Reconstruction Through Still Pictures

By PROFESSOR DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
New York University

The celebration of the Washington Bi-Centennial has provided the history teacher with a great variety of teaching material. This has taken on various forms, from the publication of Washington's complete writings to the building of replicas of Mount Vernon and of Federal Hall. There has been a more or less persistent effort to recreate as far as possible the main features of the life and times of this great figure in American life. History has been conceived as essentially a reconstruction of the past as individuals and organizations have sought to establish points of contact with a by-gone epoch. The interest shown in this connection is not only a tribute to the services of this great American, but a recognition of the large place which history has made for itself in the life of the present. It points particularly to a desire on the part of our people to make actual physical contacts with the past; to an ambition to relive its scenes and possess a first-hand knowledge of its great figures.

A celebration like this should go far toward enriching the instruction of the classroom. This result is not to be attained merely by sharing with others for the moment a definite experience of a particular time. The materials added should reveal as never before, the possibilities of certain instructional techniques as applied to the study and appraisal of other times and people. Historical celebrations have become more frequent as the passing years have multiplied occasion and opportunity. Their educational value should be reflected more clearly in the work of the teacher and the school in providing better collections of teaching materials and more effective classroom techniques.

One of the most significant contributions which this celebration has made to the equipment of the

classroom is the series of twenty etchings entitled *The Bi-Centennial Pageant of George Washington*, published by the George Washington Memorial Association, New York City. They represent a type of instructional material which is commanding more and more consideration in the classroom, namely the picture. While the educational motion picture has tended to divert somewhat the attention of teachers from its more modest progenitor, the ordinary print or lithograph, the fact remains that it is only in terms of the effective use of these simpler forms of visual material that the motion picture will justify itself in the classroom.

THE FORMS AND POSSIBILITIES OF THE PICTURE IN HISTORY TEACHING

This series illustrates admirably the conditions governing the production of such aids to learning and the possibilities inherent in the picture in the history classroom. The two aspects of the picture; viz., its origin and its use, are very closely related. The one more or less determines the other. If the desirability of a visual contact with the past be granted, if history is something to be seen, felt and experienced in addition to being something read in a book, pulled to pieces, and put together again as an academic exercise, it follows that picture material is entitled to the same serious consideration as is any portion of textual matter. The teacher's initial task is to select the materials out of which the past is to be re-constructed. The picture, whatever its form, cannot be overlooked as he assembles his data.

Much of this picture material has survived as the result of accident, if it may be said to have "survived" at all. Much that he may use is of doubtful value, either because it is not contemporary, or

has been produced under conditions which minimize its apparent value. Many pictures are pure figments of the imagination, or concepts for which supporting data is entirely lacking. They are the embodiment of more or less vague ideas or pure bursts of phantasy. All reflect life in some way, but too often it is the vagaries of existence rather than the realities of living.

It would take us too far afield to consider the various forms of pictorial expression available to the teacher of history, ranging from the cartoon to the work of the various schools of painters. Among all these the teacher must identify the really instructional or educational picture. A picture may be so characterized when it embodies a significant fragment of the past, and through its very form and content contributes to the effectiveness of the teaching. The more closely it conforms to what history is, the more likely it is to make a significant contribution to historical study; the more readily it communicates itself or conveys its message to the student, the larger its place alongside the other media through which we approach the hidden past. In the very nature of the case the history teacher must depend largely upon those remains or fragments of the past which lie closest to the reality itself. In a sense, they are fragments of life broken off from the main stem; they are the only traces which remain of actuality. If history or human development is only to be apprehended *after* the fact rather than through experiencing the fact, then those remains which enable us to appropriate or share experience vicariously are our most potent media for apprehending the living, pulsating life that once was but has forever passed, and may be caught only through these meagre bits which have survived which we sometimes designate as "remains," and sometimes as "sources."

THE PICTURES IN "THE BI-CENTENNIAL PAGEANT OF GEORGE WASHINGTON"

Pictures to be significant in the classroom must touch portions of the subject which are regarded as significant by the scholar. If visual contacts are to be made with the life and activities of Washington an appraisal must be made of this particular portion of history to ascertain what was significant in the life of Washington. This done the question remains as to what extent this may be presented or embodied effectively in pictorial form. In the series before us twenty leading American etchers have been enlisted to give expression to twenty episodes or aspects of Washington's life which have been approved by a group of historical scholars not only as worthy of presentation, but as more or less representative of the nature and scope of his activities. These follow.

1. *Washington and His Mother*. By Arthur William Heintzelman. A domestic scene in the Rappahannock homestead showing the widowed mother sewing in silence while George, age twelve, studiously applies himself to the task of self-education.
2. *Washington, The Surveyor's Assistant*. By Robert Nisbet. Pursuing his education, George, now sixteen, is shown, accompanied by George William Fairfax, helping James Genn to survey the domain of Lord Fairfax in Virginia.
3. *Washington on His Mission to the Ohio*. By Sears Gallagher. Major Washington and his companion, Gist, leaving Fort Le Boeuf, after delivering Governor Dinwiddie's message to the French.
4. *Washington at Braddock's Defeat*. By Earl Horter. The youthful Colonel, his General mortally wounded, rallying the troops at a critical moment.
5. *Washington's Courtship*. By William Auerbach-Levy. The young widow, Martha Dandridge Custis, and the gallant Colonel, recently returned from a trip to the Ohio country, shown in a beautiful Virginia garden.
6. *Washington at Pohick Church*. By Ernest David Roth. About to enter the church on Sunday morning, Washington is congratulated by some of his friends on his election as a vestryman.
7. *En Route to the First Continental Congress*. By Eugene Higgins. Colonel Pendleton, Colonel Washington, and Patrick Henry passing a Maryland farmhouse on their way from Mount Vernon to Philadelphia.
8. *Washington Assumes Command*. By Ralph Boyer. The Commander-in-Chief, accompanied by his guard of honor, the polished First City Troop of Philadelphia, faces the small group of untrained patriots composing his new command.
9. *The British Evacuate Boston*. By Allen Lewis. A majestic Washington, in one of his few brief moments of triumph during the War of Independence, as he watches General Howe's ship putting to sea.
10. *The Retreat from Long Island*. By Levon West. The General and Colonel Glover are shown directing, at night, one of the most astonishing and successful retreats in military annals.
11. *Washington at Valley Forge*. By George Wright. A compassionate Washington, keenly alert to the desperate plight of his men, and overwhelmed with his responsibility.
12. *Washington and Lee at Monmouth*. By Kerr Eby. The Commander-in-Chief checks the furious speed of his mount and, with sword upraised, angrily rebukes General Lee whose troops are retreating.
13. *The Surrender of Cornwallis*. By F. Luis Mora. General O'Hara, delegated to surrender Cornwallis' sword, presents it to Washington, who indicates with a gesture that General Lincoln will receive it on his behalf. Gaily uniformed, the old regiments of France stand by. It is their victory, too.

14. *Washington Prevents a Military Dictatorship.* By Albert Sterner. Washington, the man of principle, persuades his restive officers—all his character and record speaking with his words—that the army serves the country but must not rule it.
15. *Washington's Farewell to His Officers.* By Samuel Chamberlain. Victory dissolves associations which, through mutual dependence and respect, have developed warm friendships. The dramatic scene in Fraunce's Tavern marks the return of the great captains to civil life.
16. *Washington, The Planter.* By Louis Conrad Rosenberg. Washington, relieved of his military responsibility, gratefully retires to Mount Vernon where he is shown supervising the activities of his estate.
17. *The Constitutional Convention.* By John W. Winkler. Denied the enjoyment of private life by a new public emergency, Washington reluctantly emerges from retirement as Presiding Officer of the Constitutional Convention.
18. *New York Welcomes the President-Elect.* By Robert Lawson. The stately barge bearing the President-Elect approaches Murray's Wharf through crowded shipping gaily decorated in his honor.
19. *Lady Washington's Levee.* By Walter Tittle. On Christmas Day, 1790, the leaders of the new republic gather in Philadelphia to honor the President and his wife.
20. *Washington at Mount Vernon.* By Childe Hassam. Serene and content, Washington enjoys the sunset of his illustrious career in the peace and beauty of his beloved estate.

It will be noted that some of these have already attracted the attention of the artist and illustrator. Contemporary efforts to catch and fix these aspects of his career were so few as to be negligible. The public has long been familiar with the numerous attempts which were made to paint him, or to represent him in a sculptured form. What a contrast to a figure such as President Hoover with the omnipresent news photographer!

Any selection such as this is of peculiar interest in that it suggests those phases of his life which have been passed over and calls for an appraisal of the relative merit of the scenes selected as compared with those possible. Two conditions were imposed in making such a selection which are of significance to the teacher of history: first, the relative importance of the scene or episode; second, the possibilities of picturizing that particular episode. As the pictures taken together leave an impression of the *whole* life of Washington it is also a matter of some moment as to how they have been distributed or apportioned with regard to the various activities and interests of which he was a part.

The pictures form a chronological sequence like

so many acts or scenes in a drama. In this respect again they partake essentially of the nature of history in its unfolding and in its sequences, which taken together reveal human development. The sequence pictures, unlike so many emanating from the pencil or brush of the artist, are accurate portrayals of the scenes. The artist has been enjoined against giving his imagination or concept free rein. Whatever appeal he chose to make on the art side is in terms of what actually happened, or in conformity with what was actually known of the man and his times. The several artists were, therefore, supplied with the necessary data so far as this was available, or could be made available. As far as possible the artist was selected in accordance with the scene to be depicted. If it was a scene which called essentially for action, or for an environmental sitting, or for portraiture, that artist was assigned whose existing work revealed his superiority in that particular field. The important consideration, however, was that nothing should be sacrificed which would make for a faithful rendering of the scene on the historical side.

Interesting facts were revealed in this effort to



WASHINGTON ON HIS MISSION TO THE OHIO
From the original etching by Sears Gallagher. Copyright
The George Washington Memorial Association.

faithfully reproduce the past. The Surrender of Cornwallis, No. 13, reverses the relative positions of the French and American troops from that commonly shown in the pictures of the event. Take, for example, the well-known representation by Trumbull. Evidence for the present arrangement rests on an original sketch made on the spot by the Berthier brothers, members of Rochambeau's staff. The Cambridge elm is omitted from the scene where Washington takes command. The flag shown there is the Pine Tree Flag. In the Valley Forge scene the Washington portrayed is the Washington whom Peale painted on bed ticking at Valley Forge two months later, in January, 1778. This picture is the result of a careful study of the environment made on the spot with the aid of the present curator of the park.

The pictures present interesting bases for comparison with contemporary narratives. For example, Washington in his *Journal* describes his departure from Fort Le Boeuf. He has also left an account of his experiences on the occasion of Braddock's Defeat (No. 4), when "two horses" were "shot from under him," and he received "four bullet holes in his coat." The meeting between Lee and Washington was described by an onlooker, and the artist therefore has had the advantage of this somewhat circumstantial narrative.

In this series then we are concerned with a particular type of picture—with a unique type—the "reconstructed" historical picture, or the historical reconstruction. As such they embody problems concerned with persons present, their appearance, their costumes and actions and the environmental setting, and provide an effective basis for classroom analysis and synthesis. The artist guided and directed by the historian, has submitted an "answer" to the question "What happened?". It is his version of what actually took place, with some indication of how it actually came to be. He has, of course, crystallized the situation at a particular point. The student begins to realize the large amount of data which had to be examined and appraised in order to bring together that which was authentic. He is confronted with the problem of assembling this data with due regard to a proper perspective, so that the major and minor elements involved bear a harmonious relation each to the other. The pupil becomes aware of the real nature of history and the difficult problem which it presents in any effort to recreate a human situation.

TEACHING VALUES

With pictures of this type two considerations dominate their classroom use. These hark back to the points raised in an earlier paragraph; viz., the relation between content itself, the organization or

present form of that content (its "reconstruction" aspect), and its use. Assuming that a picture such as "Washington Assumes Command" is an open sesame to an important aspect of the past, its possibilities are revealed by a careful analysis of the picture itself in the following order:

Washington on foot, drawn sword in hand with the point toward the ground, stands facing the American troops on July 3, 1775. The latter are drawn up in line and are presenting arms. They carry a Pine Tree Flag. At the end of the front line toward the observer is a drummer boy. Their postures, uniforms, and varied equipment are indicative of their lack of training. Some wear buckskin; a few possess military uniforms; the majority are clad in ordinary civilian clothes. A tall figure in the foreground does not even wear his hair in the customary queue.

In sharp contrast is the little group behind Washington at the right. It is a detachment of the First City Troop of Philadelphia which had accompanied Washington as a guard of honor. Three of them are mounted; the other member of the squadron is dismounted and holds the bridle of his own horse and that of Washington's mount. The guard wear round helmets with a plume behind. They are held on the head by a chin strap with a rosette at either end. They wear cavalry boots reaching above the knee and carry swords. Two officers in full uniform also form a part of this group.

A half dozen spectators are present (background-center). They consist of a gentleman and his lady of the better class, a man in a great coat and carrying a cane, and three gentlemen (identifiable as such by their costumes). In the back center may be seen two buildings and the spire of a church. One of these is a large house on the salt-box type. The troops are drawn up in front of a large tree; other trees appear in the distant background.

This is more or less of an inventory, or appraisal of pictorial details. They are more significant in this case because they are authentic details. The flag shown here is a representation, as close as the artist can make it, of the Pine Tree Flag itself. The building in the background is a representation of a typical building of the time, one that in all probability occupied the site. And so it goes.

As this appraisal is made the teacher is recalling the subject matter involved, having always in mind that larger portion of history or of development, of which this is a part. His purpose is to study just how this picture fits in therewith. These points of contact may be looked upon in a measure as the "teaching values." In the picture under consideration the following may be recognized.

Conditions at the time Washington took over the command: happenings between the Battle of Lexington (April 19), and July 3. Accomplishments on both sides.



WASHINGTON ASSUMES COMMAND

From the original etching by Ralph Boyer. Copyright The George Washington Memorial Association.

Washington's selection: his earlier war experience (Use No. 3 and No. 4.)

Relative strength and weakness of British and American armies in July, 1775: numbers, equipment, experience.

Action of Congress and response of Washington.

Nature of honor conferred. Washington's spirit of self-sacrifice: nature of his patriotism.

CLASSROOM USES

In evaluating a picture of this type for classroom use the teacher would do well to consider in addition possible exercises or problems inherent in, or suggested by the picture. One type of problem of this sort has already been noted—the exercise or problem which calls for a recognition of the data or details that have gone into the final result, and the steps or stages which have marked its selection and incorporation in the finished picture. The only other type of exercise or problem really pertinent in a history class is one which may be characterized as truly “historical,” involving some phase, even though a minor one, of historical method. The total result in the picture under consideration is the final effort of a group of scholars. It may be challenged in the light of the individual's own “picture” or

concept. Many of the details will probably be open to question. So far as they are, they will drive the student back to the supporting data, or to existing data whether it supports or demolishes his cherished concept. If the teacher has accepted the idea that history is essentially a reconstruction, these exercises will be more or less identified with some phase of the relation of man to environment in a time setting. The following are suggestive of the type of exercise or problem possible.

1. Prepare a bit of conversation between two soldiers before and after the ceremonies attending his taking over the command of the army at Cambridge.

2. Record, in an informal letter, or in a more formal report, Washington's impressions of the American forces.

3. Prepare a British version of the appointment of Washington and his arrival in Cambridge.

There remains still another aspect of the use of such pictures; the act of “projecting” them into the classroom; i.e., making the most effective initial contact between them and the pupil. This may often be done through points of contact between the pupil's own experience or conscious lack



WASHINGTON AT VALLEY FORGE

From the original etching by George Wright. Copyright The George Washington Memorial Association.

of it, and details or items in the picture itself. As an illustration of this and its importance in the initial stages of picture study would be the following "approach" to No. 8.

The amount of detail in this picture makes it rich in content and suggests the possibility of its serving as the heart of the lesson (in contrast with No. 7). It also involves further consideration of Washington's earlier military services embodied in Nos. 3 and 4. A study of the details of this picture reveals important points of contact between the scene and the military situation on July 3, 1775, when Washington assumed the role of Commander-in-Chief of the American forces. The picture suggests (1) the theatre of war—the region in and about Boston (2) the accomplishments of the Americans to date (involving actions which were little more than skirmishes), and (3) problems of organization, discipline, etc.—in short, the welding together of a military instrument which would force their opponents to yield. It is a study in contrasts—the contrast between a powerful nation, England, with abundant resources, a well-disciplined army, able, well-trained leaders, already

well intrenched in Boston, and a group of colonies, hardly conscious that they were a nation, lacking almost all of these advantages.

The teaching aspects, then, center about the conditions or situation when Washington took over the command, his qualifications to cope with the difficulties which it presented, and its revelation of the man and the cause to which he gave himself so wholeheartedly.

The opening question might be: "Did you ever see troops on parade or on review? Did they remind you at all of the troops in this picture? Look at it carefully before you answer." As the pupils call attention to details in the picture, be sure that they bring out clearly the similarities or differences. The purpose of this appraisal is to direct attention to the incongruous features, e.g., the tall backwoodsman in the foreground, the awkward poses, etc., all the more conspicuous in contrast with the spick and span uniforms, the bearing, and equipment of the guard of honor which had ridden with Washington from Philadelphia.

"What is happening here? Why have these troops been assembled? What should have been your

thoughts had you been in Washington's place? Do you think he was disappointed in what he saw?"

To bring out the situation more vividly, such questions might be asked as: "What did the happenings of this day suggest as his real problems?"

To relate the details here more closely to the textual material: "What had already happened? What problems did the events just preceding this recall to his mind?"

After the pupils have been given an opportunity to indicate the problems or difficulties facing Washington (which may be noted on the blackboard as the discussion proceeds), a question on the order of the following will serve to emphasize the relations between the situation and the man upon whom the colonies depended.

"What had this man done to qualify him for such a task? Do these pictures (introducing Nos. 3-4, and possibly 2) supply any information on this point? Do they reveal any similar problems or difficulties? Are there any other earlier pictures in the series which serve to indicate his fitness for this task? (Here the teacher may introduce No. 7 again with its suggestion of Washington's relations with the common people.) "What was most needed at this time to assure the ultimate success of the American cause? Do you see it in this picture? What did Washington do to justify the confidence which was placed in him? What did he supply, or what did he possess, which explains the ultimate success of the American cause?"

The lesson may close here with the suggestion that the pupils are to look for these contributions, seek-

ing them in the remaining pictures in the series covering the Revolution (Nos. 9-13) and in the pages of their textbooks. The presentation suggested is particularly appropriate to the Junior High School grades. It can be adapted to the Senior High School by not dwelling so long on concrete details.

Thus far each picture has been considered as an independent unit, as a representation more or less distinct from any other. The use of a single unit in such a series may be considerably extended when it is placed beside any or all of the others. It may become an effective basis for comparative study. Its potency and its possibilities in this connection, however, inevitably carry the teacher back to its *content* as a single piece of historical material, the *organization of that content*, and the *identity of that content with history itself*.

It is to be devoutly wished that with the passing years more material of this sort may be made available. Such pictures are a *potent* factor in promoting the wider use of the picture in history teaching, and point the way to the use of other types. The tremendous efforts now being made to catch and register the visual aspects of our day will soon require of the teacher a more effective visual handling of history, especially as it reflects the happenings of the last fifty years. Such a series is particularly welcome in providing the teacher with the same kind of material for the presentation of the more remote past.

The Model Assembly

A Project in the Study of Government

By PROFESSOR LASHLEY GREY HARVEY

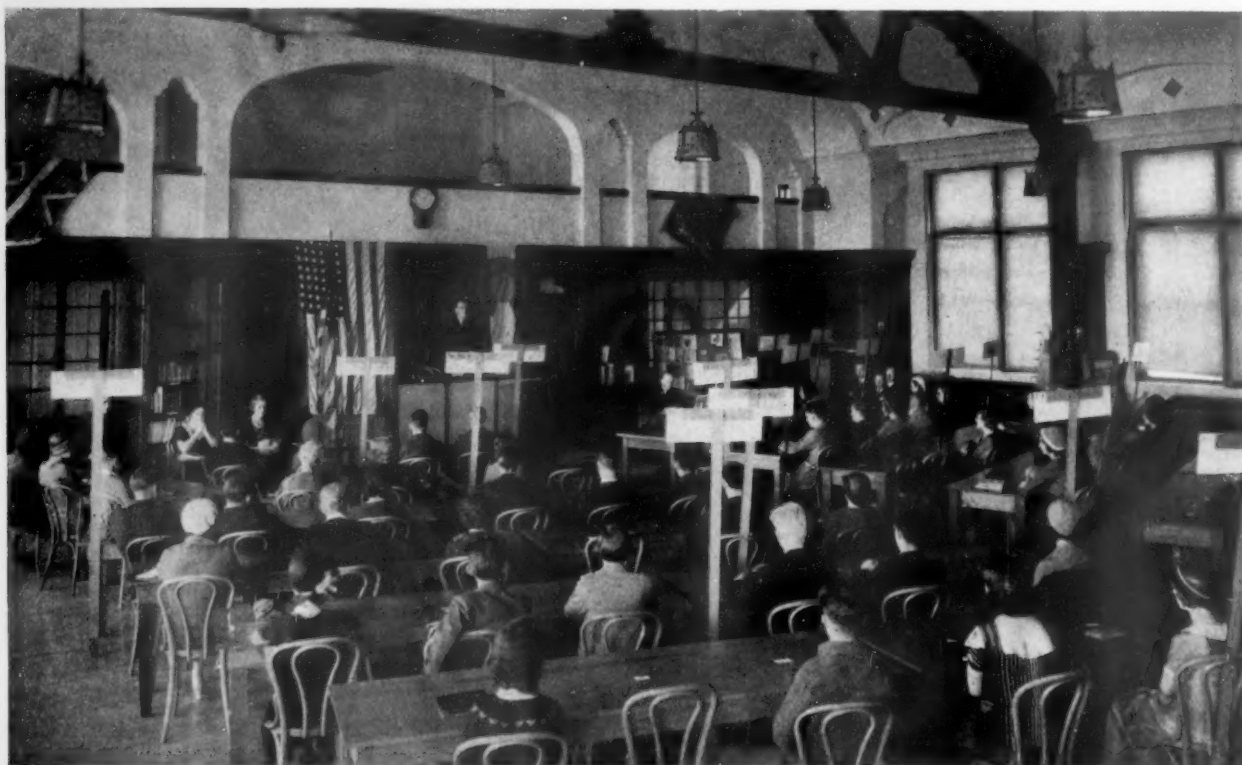
The Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa, Colorado

The past decade has seen a marked difference in the instruction given in the field of government. The new type of teaching is direct. In the field of pure science, the student can spend a small amount of time with a good text and much time in the laboratory. Social science instructors have envied their fellow science teachers and though they have realized the wisdom of an objective approach to any subject for study, few have found a satisfactory one. It is, of course, impossible to conduct the student around the world—the laboratory of the social scientist—observing social phenomena as he encounters them. Too, the schedule of the student is so filled that it is practically impossible to require him to spend more time under the direction of the instructor.

Nevertheless a courageous group of instructors is making definite progress toward giving the stu-

dent a better understanding of conditions as they really are in the world today. Realizing the impossibility of having the student observe and participate in the State Legislature, the Federal Congress, the League of Nations Assembly or the Disarmament Conference, they are bringing these different governmental bodies in miniature to the student and making him a participant in them. Through model League of Nations Assemblies, model Disarmament Conferences, model Constitutional Conventions, model State Legislatures, student conferences and forums, facts relating to government are made to live.

This new type of instruction is not superseding the lecture and textbook but is assisting them. It is entirely outside the class room but utilizes all the information gleaned therein. It may take the form of almost any governmental body. The student



MODEL COLORADO CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION HELD AT THE ADAMS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, ALAMOSA, COLO., APRIL 2, 1932.

prepares himself to participate in this body by familiarizing himself with the functions that the body performs and becoming acquainted with some of the problems with which it deals. The organization of the body, though important, fades into the background when the student dramatizes it. As a general rule students from all neighboring schools are invited to attend these model assemblies. An exceptional opportunity thus is provided for the student to compare himself with his fellow students in other schools. The student's comparison is based on the information he has at hand and his skill in using it. Such comparison makes for the right sort of rivalry between colleges.

The model assembly is proving popular for two principal reasons: (1) the growing interest of American youth in present-day problems accompanied by a desire to assist in their solution; (2) interest is aroused in class room instruction. The project has been welcomed by both the student and teacher. The success of these model assemblies is proof that the American youth is interested in government and vitally concerned with the solution of our modern problems. To observe one of these assemblies in action is to be convinced of this fact.

The model League of Nations Assembly which was held at Brown University is a good example of this new type of project. The Sino-Japanese controversy was presented for solution. Students

from many eastern universities came to that model assembly each representing a definite country in the League of Nations and prepared to present the point of view of that country. The solution offered may have little resemblance to the final outcome of the controversy; however, those students went away from that conference with a realization of some of the difficulties that present themselves in the solution of international controversies of such importance. This model assembly at Brown University is only one of a dozen or more similar assemblies held this year in our colleges.

Last November students in the Rocky Mountain region met in Denver for a model Disarmament Conference. This was held in conjunction with the regional conference of the International Relations Clubs and was sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation with the assistance of the Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences at the University of Denver. Nine colleges were represented. A group of students from each school with the aid of faculty advisors formed a Preparatory Commission and drew up the plans for the Conference. Assignment of countries to the various colleges was made by the Preparatory Commission. In most cases each school represented one major and one minor country. Each student was allowed to select one of the commissions on which he wished to work. This information was conveyed to the

Preparatory Commission several weeks before the Conference. The Chamber of the House of Representatives at the State Capitol was used for the plenary sessions. Committee rooms were assigned the different commissions. For two days students of the Rocky Mountain region met in Denver to dramatize the Disarmament Conference.

Other colleges have followed the Denver experiment. Just a short while later there was a conference of students at the University of Nebraska assembled to discuss disarmament.

Realizing the value of this type of project as means of instruction in the international field there was an experiment in the local field at the Adams State Teachers College on April 2. The assembly was a model Colorado Constitutional Convention. Differing from the projects mentioned above, high school as well as college students took part. Students of ten different high schools in the San Luis Valley participated. A college student presided over the model Convention and the chairmen of the committees were college students. It is hoped that in conferences in years to come the entire work will be in the hands of high school students. It is the plan that there will be similar assemblies held each year. The model Colorado Constitutional Convention lasted for one day at the end of which a model constitution for the state was completed. It was assumed at the outset that the Convention had convened as a result of a legislative act and that the people had voted in favor of calling the Convention. The representation was based on senatorial districts. There were twice as many delegates as there were senators in the General Assembly. Each high school was assigned several districts. This meant that every delegate represented a district and took part in one of the seven committees of the Convention. The day's work was divided into regular convention sessions and committee meetings.

In the past most of these student conferences have been confined largely to college students and the discussion to international relations. There is promise that they will be extended to the high school level and deal with local problems. David Lawrence, at the last meeting of the American Political Science Association announced the formation of the United States Society, one of the activities of which is to conduct model state legislative assemblies all over the United States. These are to be held in the respective capitols. A model Congress is to be held in Washington, D.C. These assemblies will be sponsored for both high school and college students by the United States Society.

The values of projects of this nature are manifold. (1) The model assembly makes the facts in the class room interesting and vital. The student

is given an objective and is spurred on with something more than grades as a goal. He seeks knowledge that he may be able to solve a definite problem. This direct method of instruction often brings forward students who are mediocre in their classes. (2) The student becomes acquainted with parliamentary procedure. (3) He develops poise, tact, and initiative. (4) He learns to organize his thoughts and to think on his feet. In fact it would be hard to find an activity which has greater possibilities of developing leadership. Not only does he learn to lead but to follow and cooperate as well. (5) Interest in the discussion of current issues is aroused in citizens outside the college confines, bringing them closer to their local, national and international problems.

Application of this new direct instruction in the field of political science is certain to increase during this decade. It can never take the place of class room instruction but will be used as a means of creating interest. The presentation of a national or world situation in miniature to students as a laboratory experiment means great gain for both students and instructors.

Notes on Periodical Literature

By GERTRUDE R. B. RICHARDS, PH.D.

Sir John Marriott's study of Garibaldi in the *Quarterly Review* for July is based on rather conventional sources, and adds but little to our factual knowledge of the hero of the Italian Risorgimento. What is new, is the author's interpretation of the man and of his achievements. His closing tribute is both inspiring and illuminating. "On November 7, the King and the Dictator drove into Naples side by side and Garibaldi, refusing any reward or decoration, crept quietly away to his island home. That was the crowning moment of Garibaldi's career. He had done more than conquer kingdoms: he had shown that he was the master of his own soul and the whole world was touched to the quick by his simple dignity and proud renunciation. . . . Garibaldi's perfect simplicity, his quiet dignity, his noble bearing, captured all hearts. . . . Thus Garibaldi and not Cavour was the spiritual ancestor of Fascism, and of all the men who have governed Italy since the achievement of unity, it is Signor Mussolini with whom Garibaldi would have found himself in closest sympathy. . . ." Other articles in the same issue of interest to historians are Professor Jenks' analysis of the Statute of Westminster, 1931, and Dr. E. G. Dillon's "The Spanish Republic and its Problems."

The September 1st issue of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has Marichal Joffre's discussion of war and politics in which he reviews the events of 1915 preceding his retirement from command a retirement which seems to him the direct consequence of political intrigues in the ministry.

"New Methods" as Applied to Social Science Teaching

By GEORGE W. HODGKINS

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There frequently loom up on the educational horizon various new "plans" or "methods" of teaching, bearing names more or less descriptive of their character, or perhaps named for persons or places responsible for producing them. Some of these plans or methods have been rather widely adopted or at least tried out, though often with considerable conscious or unconscious modification from the original. Even where these plans or methods may not, for a variety of reasons, seem suitable for bodily transplanting into one's own teaching practice, an understanding of their nature may well stimulate any teacher to devise or adapt improvements in teaching suited to his own conditions, as well as enable him to react more intelligently to current discussions of teaching methods.

The present paper, based upon a study made at the request and with the coöperation of the social studies department of the school system with which the writer is connected, attempts to summarize the main facts about a number of these newer methods. It can not, of course, cover all of the comparatively new developments which might possibly be listed, nor go into any of them in great detail. A special attempt has been made to link the methods together and show their interrelations. Sufficient references to books and magazine articles, on the methods in general or on their special applications to the social studies, will be given to enable interested readers to obtain the further details which the limitations of this paper prevent us from attempting here. While these references have been introduced into the body of the paper without some of the formalities of a full bibliographical listing, enough is given to enable the reader to infer the nature of the available material and to locate particular items without difficulty through the usual library or book-trade channels. The references here given are, of course, by no means exhaustive, and are chiefly confined to the more widely accessible material. Readers desiring to pursue some of the topics more exhaustively will find help in bibliographies attached to some of the references cited here, in the usual book and periodical indexes available at libraries, and in some special bibliographical aids in the field of education, among which we may particularly cite the United States Office (formerly Bureau) of Education's annotated *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education*, of which the five annual issues to date have been published in its *Bulletin* series as numbers 22 (1928), 36 (1929), 23 (1930), 13 (1931), and 16 (1932).

Any reader of the literature of this field will naturally expect some trouble from the varied, not to say loose, use of terminology. The preliminary find-

ings of the National Survey of Secondary Education (L. V. Koos in *School Life*, September, 1932) include special mention of this circumstance. Among the plans which bear the names of places or persons, the Dalton, Winnetka, and Morrison plans are most often reported but seem actually practiced with many deviations from those plans as set forth by their originators; while plans reported under the commonest of the descriptive titles—long-unit assignments, individualized instruction, contract plan, laboratory plan, problem method, project method—are found to be very much alike regardless of the particular title used. The similarities and overlappings of the various methods will be frequently noted in the present article, but we shall hope to make clear such distinctions as logic and historical development warrant and to do our bit toward reducing some order out of the confusion of which the National Survey very justifiably complains.

GENERAL REFERENCES

In addition to the references which will be given on the particular plans, it may be said that the later books on general teaching methods, or on special method in the social studies, will also explain some of the plans, and this is especially true of those books whose titles reflect an emphasis on the "newer" things. This may be illustrated by citing, for example, *Modern Methods in High School Teaching*, by H. R. Douglas, which reveals in its chapter headings such topics as supervised study, visual instruction, socialized procedure, problems and projects, new-type tests, and individual adjustment. *Progressive Methods of Teaching*, by M. J. Stormzand, and *The Passing of the Recitation*, by V. T. Thayer, are other cases in point. W. C. Ruediger's little volume, *Vitalized Teaching*, gives a keen and concise critique of several of the plans treated in this paper. *Modern Developments in Educational Practice*, by John Adams, is a readable survey of American educational innovations by a distinguished British educator. It may be said in passing that, while some of the references we shall cite are decidedly recent, the publication dates of others (1923 for the two books last mentioned above and somewhat earlier for some to be cited hereafter) suggest that the methods we are here discussing are not ephemeral fads but rather represent persistent trends in education of the last decade or two.

Frequent articles in the various professional periodicals present discussions and report experiments in the use of the various plans, and those in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* will be most frequently cited here for their specific application to the social science field.

(Anyone interested in pursuing the the subject in articles somewhat earlier than the bulk of those cited here, should consult Professor Shryock's index to the first sixteen volumes of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, 1909-25, published in the issue of December, 1925.) For a general view of the newer methods in the social studies, see especially two articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for April, 1929; or one in *The Journal of the National Education Association* for February, 1930; or the groups of articles in *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* for June and October, 1930. For rather comprehensive listings of teaching aids and pupil activities which may be drawn upon for carrying on methods new and old, see *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* articles in December, 1926, to February, 1927 (a series on visual aids); March, 1927 (maps); May, 1929 (a master-list of pupil activities); May, 1930 (illustrative and supplementary materials and where obtainable); and December, 1930 (aids and activities for junior high school).

The National Survey of Secondary Education has included a study of the extent of use of various special methods and a more detailed treatment of outstanding examples in particular schools, and the findings may be looked for in the report now in process of publication as *Bulletin*, 1932, no. 17, of the United States Office of Education. At the time this is written, the separately printed monographs making up this composite report have only just begun to come from the press, but monograph 13 is scheduled to cover "provisions for individual differences" and monograph 21 will be on "instruction in social subjects." A similar advance reference may be made to the reports, now in process of publication by Scribner's, for the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, under the auspices of the American Historical Association, particularly that scheduled on methods of instruction by Ernest Horn and also that on organization of content by R. M. Tryon. The National Council for the Social Studies has published, in its *First Yearbook* (1931), a critical survey of experimental studies comparing results from different methods old and new, by W. G. Kimmel; and there is a briefer review of experimental studies in W. S. Monroe's chapter on the social studies in the February, 1932, issue of *Review of Educational Research*. On the whole, these experimental studies have been rather inconclusive so far, as, even where differences might seem large enough to be statistically significant in favor of one method or the other, allowance must generally be made for complicating factors such as imperfectly equated pupil groups and differences in the skill and enthusiasm with which different methods were handled.

SUPERVISED STUDY

Some two decades ago there arose an increased interest in that part of the pupil's learning which goes on outside of the ordinary recitation, and this movement covers three chief phases—improvement in the selecting and assigning of lessons to be studied; teaching pupils how to study; and the supervision of study at school. The whole movement came to be

known as supervised study, though its sponsors have come to prefer the broader term "directed study." A leading early authority was A. L. Hall-Quest in his *Supervised Study* (1916, for high schools, but followed in 1924 by a companion volume for elementary schools), and in his edited series which included Mabel E. Simpson's *Supervised Study in History* (containing numerous sample lessons from seventh and eighth grade American history). This development in teaching procedure had been stimulated by several psychological and pedagogical studies of thinking and studying, and particularly by three books which appeared almost simultaneously in 1909-10—*How We Think*, by John Dewey, *How to Study*, by F. M. McMurry, and *Teaching Children to Study*, by Lida B. Earhart. There have been quite a number of later books on how to study, for teachers' and for students' use, by such writers as Frank W. Thomas, William F. Book, and Claude C. Crawford, and others which almost any general or education library will reveal.

A recent and rather comprehensive volume, including summaries of numerous other studies and a considerable bibliography, but without so much separate treatment of history and other particular school subjects as in Hall-Quest's earlier work, is Louis R. Kilzer's *Supervised Study* (1931). Mention may also be made of Francis Shreve's *The Supervised Study Plan of Teaching* (1927); and a group of articles in *Teachers College Record* from January, 1928, to March, 1929, reprinted as *Directing Study of High School Pupils*, by Woodring and Flemming. Among these articles was a bibliography on study in the issue of February, 1928, which has now been followed by a supplementary bibliography in the issue of March, 1932. Other recent books have stressed the correlative problem of directing pupils' independent study (instead of their school-supervised study), as in G. A. Yoakam's *Improvement of the Assignment* (1932) and Carr and Waage's brief *The Lesson Assignment* (1931). This phase of the subject links up with some of the methods treated in later sections of the present paper, and with the questions of school library facilities and of supplementary reading, treated in such monographs as R. E. Swindler's *The High School Library and Reading Problems in the Social Studies* (given in brief in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, December, 1931) and W. G. Kimmel's *Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies* (publication no. 4 of the National Council for the Social Studies).

THE LABORATORY PLAN

Supervised study has led to the method often called the Laboratory Plan, a title suggesting that the direction of pupils' study at school had its earliest development in subjects requiring the use of special materials and equipment as in the science laboratory, and that other subjects would benefit by a similar provision for pupils' study at school with special things to work with as well as special direction by the teacher as needed. While this may include the use of general library facilities, the plan regularly contemplates that at least a part of the pupils' individual study shall

be in a specialized departmental work room and reading room which may be used for recitations, conferences, and other group activities as well. Equipment for a social science laboratory might include supplementary books, visual materials of various sorts, and articles used in creative and constructive activities of the pupils. The time needed for individual and group "laboratory work" in such a room (as similarly for supervised study in an ordinary classroom) may be secured by reducing ordinary recitation time, or by extending total class time, or partly by both means. Laboratory methods in the social studies appear as a part of some of the other plans hereafter described, for which appropriate references will be given, but in addition THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK articles worth noting here are in the issues of March, 1925, May, 1928, and March, 1930; the series by Annette Glick in May, October, and November, 1931; and two articles in January, 1932 (which might be listed about equally well as references on the unit plan). For equipment and activities suited to the laboratory plan, see J. W. Baldwin's *The Social Studies Laboratory* (Teachers College Contribution to Education No. 371, 1929), which covers present status and recommended policy in grades 4 to 12; also the references on teaching aids and pupil activities in a previous paragraph.

THE DALTON PLAN

The Dalton Plan is a special form of the laboratory plan, taking its name from Dalton, Massachusetts, where it had its try-out though its chief subsequent development has been in various other places in America and several European countries. The plan stresses individual progress and individual responsibility, and its full adoption requires the reorganization of the whole school on this basis, although some of its features might be borrowed and used by a teacher in a non-Dalton school. In the regular Dalton Plan, the pupil is given a mimeographed assignment of a "month's work" (which will, however, take fast workers less and slow workers more than a calendar month) in his various subjects, and then distributes his time largely on his own responsibility among the various subject laboratories until he has completed the allotted work at his own pace and is ready to begin on a new "month's" assignment. There are no regular class periods scheduled by subjects, though group meetings of pupils who have reached about the same stage of progress will be called occasionally for various sorts of conferences, discussions, or other group activities. It is claimed that pupils' work is carried on with greater interest and self-reliance when their working time is not artificially broken up and allotted into class periods, and that nearly all pupils soon learn to budget their time with reasonable success. While the plan's characteristic method of meeting individual differences is by varying speed of progress, it may be adjusted to provide supplementary work for bright pupils instead of merely greater speed. It is worthy of note that a good deal of the experience with this plan, both in this country and

abroad, has been in schools with congested enrollments and average or even below-average pupils, the most noteworthy American example being the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. The faculty of this school (Dr. Lucy L. W. Wilson, principal) describes its methods in a book called *Educating for Responsibility* (1926), and there are good articles in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for December, 1927, and November, 1930 (both the book and the 1927 article containing a number of sample assignment sheets). A modified Dalton plan developed at Cambridge, Pa., is described in *Educational Method* for June, 1929. The standard books on the Dalton plan in general are *Education on the Dalton Plan* (1922), by Helen Parkhurst (originator of the plan), and *The Dalton Laboratory Plan*, by Evelyn Dewey.

THE WINNETKA PLAN

Another much-discussed system of individualized instruction is the Winnetka Plan, developed by Superintendent Carleton Washburne at Winnetka, Illinois, a suburb of Chicago. In Winnetka the pupil's time is divided (generally about half and half) between individual progress in acquiring a body of specific facts and skills, and socialized group activities of various kinds to which formal promotion standards are not applied. Some phases of the social studies call for formal knowledge-getting, and the Winnetka research organization has participated actively in seeking to determine essentials in this line and in developing materials (its own and also Rugg's) for instruction. The socialized activities, however, are especially stressed in the social studies program. There is not, therefore, one distinctive Winnetka technique in the social studies but rather a composite use of various procedures, including variations of a number of the methods previously described in other paragraphs of this paper.

The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, Part II*, of the National Society for the Study of Education (1925) still ranks as one of the most informative collections of material on its subject, "Adapting the Schools to Individual Differences," including the Dalton, Winnetka, and quite a few other plans. Both the Dalton and Winnetka plans trace their inspiration to experiments begun in 1912 by Dr. Frederic Burk at San Francisco Teachers College, and later developments at that institution are related in an article in *The Journal of the N.E.A.* for March, 1929 (in which see also an article on individualized work at Scarsdale, New York.) A good general view of the Winnetka plan is given by Assistant Superintendent Logan of Winnetka in the June, 1929, issue of the same *Journal*. There is also *A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools* (1926) by Washburne, Vogel, and Gray, but containing very little about work in the social studies. To these there has just been added Superintendent Washburne's new book, *Adjusting the School to the Child* (1932), which explains the Winnetka system quite fully and includes a chapter on the social studies.

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING AND DIFFERENTIATION OF WORK

Plans for meeting the individual differences of pupils without departing so markedly from the customary instruction in class groups lie along two main lines which supplement each other—homogeneous grouping of pupils, and differentiation of work within groups. The former, of course, is not really a new method of teaching, but primarily an administrative arrangement which then calls for the devising of methods suited to the superior and dull as well as average groups, also not overlooking the need for further provision for individual needs within even the so-called homogeneous groups. Differentiation, whether between classes or within classes, may logically be sought in three main ways, or in a combination of them—varied quantity or difficulty of work within a given grade or course; varied speed of progress; and varied kinds and amounts of treatment and help given pupils by teachers. These three are not at all new in themselves, for in each of them there is a range from makeshift arrangements which the least progressive of schools will perforce adopt, to the more scientifically devised plans of pupil adjustment—from the widely differing work which different pupils actually do in “passing” a traditional course, to carefully laid out minimum, average, and enriched courses; from makeshift speed-of-progress variations through skipping and repeating, to elaborately articulated multiple-track plans; and from haphazard help for weak pupils, to special systems of coaching, remedial work, or opportunity classes. There are many special plans in this field, most often going by the names of the cities in which they are or were used, such as the Santa Barbara enrichment plan, the Cambridge double-track plan, the Batavia two-teacher plan for large classes, and some special types of supervised study organization sponsored by particular cities. Typical plans will be found described in almost any textbook on school organization and management, while an especially comprehensive compilation, still suggestive and serviceable although no longer new, is *School Organization and the Individual Child* (1912), by William H. Holmes. With these general references to plans of organization, we will consider more in detail several plans which fall specifically within the scope of this paper as “new methods” of teaching rather than of school organization, although the two necessarily interlock at many points.

Differentiated assignments within a class, varying from the minimum essentials for duller pupils to difficult or enriched work for brighter pupils, have appeared both as a distinct plan and as an adjunct to various other plans. Samples of such differentiation in daily lesson assignments may, for instance, be found extensively in the literature of supervised study, including Miss Simpson's *Supervised Study in History*, already referred to. Three levels of assignment, or as many levels as there are different passing grades in the report mark system, are often used; or else the required assignment will be supplemented by additional items of work which may be optional according to

time, ability, and interest of pupils or perhaps prescribed by the teacher for those who ought to be able to do them. Later developments in this line have, however, dealt largely with large-unit assignments or “contracts” rather than the day-by-day sort.

The words *contract*, *job*, *unit*, etc., have been variously used for the allotments of assigned work in various plans. These allotments may be simply a convenient time division of the course, as in the “monthly contracts” of the Dalton plan, or they may be units varying considerably in length according to a pedagogical grouping of content. They will usually include optional extra work, and may be organized on three or four achievement levels, or provided with some scheme of points by which credit can be given for items of work done beyond the minimum. The extra work may be supplementary reading, oral and written reports, debates, dramatic participation, drawing or construction projects, etc. (examples in two articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, April, 1928, as well as in various other references cited in this paper); and high quality of performance in the ordinary prescribed work may be rated as a part of the same system. Some difficulties lie in the burden upon the teacher in preparing assignments with such a variety of items (though this burden may be lightened by coöperation of different teachers and by adapting and reusing old material on subsequent occasions); also the problems of providing adequate facilities and guidance for the pupils in their varied work, and the task of keeping tab on the work done, which tends to make the teacher too much of a mere bookkeeper with too little chance to evaluate the quality rather than mere quantity of pupils' work or the real gain which the individual pupil has gotten out of his work. There are also individual pupil problems, varying from the superficially ambitious pupil who attempts more than he can hope to do well, to the capable but indifferent pupil who will not make full use of his talents and is content merely to get by.

CONTRACT PLAN

The term Contract Plan has been especially (but by no means exclusively) used for a system of this sort developed in the University of Wisconsin High School under the direction of Principal Harry Lloyd Miller, in an attempt to provide for individual differences without necessarily any formal segregation into ability groups or the complications of more fully individual instruction. The course is divided into units or blocks of related material, and each unit is handled by a procedure which includes an introductory or problem-raising stage, a directed study stage (essentially the laboratory method), the organizing movement with discussion and other social activities (some of which, as well as some preliminary testing, may be interspersed in the directed study), and a test for mastery. Each unit is laid out in directive study sheets specifying the minimum requirements and higher levels corresponding to higher report marks. This plan, interwoven with other matter on educational method, is found in Miller's *Directing Study*

(1922), and also in two later books—Miller and Hargreaves' *The Self-Directed School* (1925) and Miller's *Creative Learning and Teaching* (1927). There is a brief and definite description of the plan by Ruth M. Johnson in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for December, 1928, and articles on the assignment of work under this plan by B. W. Phillips appeared in November, 1926, and May, 1928. Mention may also be made of a book, *The Group Study Plan* (1928), by E. R. Maguire, principal of a New York City junior high school, describing a plan which has much in common with Miller's proposals and is commended by him in an introduction to the book. Data favoring the contract plan, from an experiment with American History in several high schools, are reported in *School Review*, April, 1929.

ORGANIZATION IN UNITS

It will be seen that a number of the current plans for improving instruction stress the arranging of the year's or semester's course into fairly large units, each focused upon some "significant understanding, habit or skill, or attitude which will serve to organize a comprehensive aspect of the subject being taught" (to quote the phrasing used in the report of work done in Albemarle County, Virginia, in the December, 1930, *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*). This large-unit organization appears in some of the recent textbooks and especially in students' workbooks, directive study sheets, and the like, which are being put out by many publishers, though there are some such materials in print which are little if any more than superficial regroupings of old-type content with a borrowing of unit-plan terminology. The essence of the new-type unit is not in its size or its title, but in the internal selecting, organizing, and administering of its subject-matter for a fairly unitary educational objective. The usually recommended teaching procedure for such units stresses the laboratory method, based on both oral and written (or mimeographed or printed) guide material, including introductory survey or pre-view of the unit, an outline, and both required and optional readings, problems, projects, etc. Yet the unit organization and the guide material can still be used where the teacher, because of personal preference or for lack of books and other so-called laboratory facilities in the classroom, sticks to the older procedure of class recitation and discussion with home and library study. With the unit organization there goes also an attempt to define real objectives in the units and to assist upon real "mastery" by the pupil, instead of mere older methods. Efforts to make clear the nature of this "mastery" in various fields of study, and to devise really effective tests of it, seem, as yet, however, to leave a good deal of room for further analysis and experiment.

THE MORRISON PLAN

Of various systems to which the term unit plan may be applied, the most talked of and the one that has probably most influenced other experimenters with unit plans, is the one developed in the University of Chicago High School by Professor Henry C. Morri-

son, and also often referred to as Morrison's Mastery Technique. It is elaborated by him in his book, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (1926, revised 1931). Either edition will serve to explain the system, although the portions of most specific concern to social science teachers are among those most extensively rewritten in the new edition. The University of Chicago Press has also put into print the so-called "guide sheet" material for European and for American history (by E. T. Smith and D. C. Bailey respectively) under the general title *A New Approach to History*; and the accompanying teacher's manual (by E. T. Smith) is perhaps the best brief treatment of the plan, including illustrative mastery objectives and tests. See also the *Laboratory Manual in American History* (1927) by Howard E. Wilson (formerly a member of the University of Chicago High School faculty); Wilson's two articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March, 1928, and October, 1929; Mary G. Kelty's unit organization in *Teaching American History in the Middle Grades* (1928) and William H. Burton's *Nature and Direction of Learning* (1929), which reflects much of the University of Chicago point of view. Unfortunately the references most authoritative in expounding the plan appear to proceed out of conditions noticeably more favorable to its success than those to be found in the ordinary public school. While Morrison's and similar unit plans are actually being tried out in quite a variety of schools, there is still a shortage of definite data in print about the adaptation of the plan to varying school contributions, such as ability of pupils taught, size of class, teaching load, and reading material and other facilities at hand. Occasional articles may be found but chiefly in periodicals of relatively local circulation, and some users of the plan whom the writer has approached have felt their work to be still so tentative as to be reluctant even to let their mimeographed material get into outside hands.

A few recent articles regarding the Morrison unit plan and its adaptations may be cited, however. Professor Wrinkle's article in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, November, 1931, reports an experiment and suggests a critical view of the long-term assignment feature. Unit-plan adaptations in history in the Simon Gratz High School of Philadelphia are described in *Educational Outlook*, January, 1932. R. O. Billett gives a critique of the unit plan from the starting point of high school pupil's opinions of the plan (but none taken specifically in the social studies field) in *School Review*, January, 1932; and W. C. Ruediger examines critically Morrison's conception of the learning unit in the same magazine, March, 1932. There has been considerable experimentation with the unit plan in small cities and in rural high schools, usually under the aegis of state school authorities or teacher-training institutions, and some important administrative and instructional economies are claimed for it in the small high school. See, for example, the work of the University of Virginia in Charlottesville and Albemarle County, reported in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, December, 1930 (already quoted) and in oc-

casional numbers of that university's bulletins under the serial title, *Secondary Education in Virginia* (especially numbers 5, 9, and 10, in 1929-30).

The Morrison plan varies according to the nature of the teaching to be done, and Morrison (beginning on page 89 of the old and page 91 of the new edition) lists five main types—science (both physical and social), appreciation (including moral behavior as well as literary and artistic appreciation), practical arts (chiefly manual), language arts (applicable also to musical and other expression), and pure practice (drill). It seems to the present writer that history and other social studies contain important elements of several of these types, and that teachers of the social studies will do well to apply to their own field a number of suggestions (on the appreciation type, for instance) for which Morrison himself does not make direct application to the social studies. Morrison organizes the subject-matter of the social as well as the physical sciences in units of what he calls the science type, on either of two levels of treatment—the “natural history” level, applicable to community civics, and an upper level emphasizing adjustability (rather than mere adjustment) through the learning of organized science. History and Geography, as well as mathematics and grammar, are subjects for which special adaptations of the science-type technique are considered in detail in Morrison's book.

It is to these various subjects of the science type that Morrison applies his most fully developed and best-known “teaching cycle”—the five steps of exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. The first is concerned with ascertaining and bringing to readiness the pupil's background for the study of the unit, and the second centers around a pre-view of the unit itself presented by the teacher and tested for preliminary understanding. The assimilation step is much the longest part of the cycle, and is essentially on the laboratory plan. Organization is mainly a written summary by the pupils, and recitation (rather different from the connotation of that term in old-fashioned pedagogy) is the socialized oral winding up of the unit. Morrison provides no single separate testing stage, as tests (both objective and essay types) are used more or less throughout the teaching cycle, to diagnose the needs of class and of individuals, as well as for the final evidence of mastery. In this connection may be quoted the “mastery formula” given by Morrison (at the beginning of chapter VI of the book): “Pre-test, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning.” By “mastery” is meant that point in the learning process at which the desired new “adaptation” (skill or understanding) has definitely been acquired by the pupil. Morrison conceives the achievement of mastery in any case to be a yes-or-no proposition, not a matter of degrees, and E. T. Smith (on page 4 of his teacher's manual) follows this idea, saying that mastery “does not mean any percentage of anything” but “does imply a change in the pupil's behavior so that understandings and intelligent attitudes have replaced naïve or natural

reactions.” Mastery, so conceived, might be compared to the closing of a spring-latch door—it latches or it doesn't latch, and any degrees short of or beyond the point of actual latching do not alter the one essential fact. It might be suggested that this presumably means, not that differentiated contracts or other graduations of work are incompatible with the Morrison plan, but that such graduations should be regarded as additional masteries (extra content or more difficult skills) beyond the basic mastery required of all passing pupils. Morrison naturally recognizes that some pupils will require more attention and longer time to reach the point of mastery, and favors the provision of interesting supplemental activities to occupy rapid pupils in the interval until practically the whole class is ready to proceed with the next unit.

THE PROJECT METHOD

The project method, in its full form, provides for organizing study into larger and more meaningful units but on a different basis from the plans discussed above. Projects, however, may be introduced into the course in various supplementary ways that may not be dignified by the title of a project “method.” Cutting through the multiplicity of definitions which various writers have devised, we may say that a project is essentially a productive enterprise. The work is motivated by and directed toward some objective product to be turned out, while learning is a by-product (except that some definite learning exercises may be introduced when the pupils see that certain knowledge or skill is needed in order to be able to execute the project). Such incidental learning may sometimes be very effective; but obviously there are dangers that some things that should be learned will be overlooked; that pupils' interest in the project may divert needed interest away from, rather than give support to, the learning activity; and that projects may take more time and effort than the amount to be learned from them will justify. The term “project” is used by some writers with special limitations or emphasis—that the product should be of economic value (a special usage in vocational education whence the term originated); that the work shall be in a natural setting rather than artificially introduced; that it shall be in a social setting (yet we may properly have individual as well as group projects); that there shall be much initiative and self-direction by the pupils in “purposing, planning, executing, and judging” the work. Some have broadened the scope of the term greatly, as William H. Kilpatrick (*Teachers College Record*, September, 1918) makes it cover almost any “wholehearted purposeful activity” (though he also emphasizes that, “generally speaking,” a “social situation” is needed for the project). The word “activity” (referring, of course, to pupil-activity) has figured prominently in discussions of the project method, and has more recently come to be used as a key word, in such phrases as “activity school,” “activity curriculum,” and “activities program,” for those current developments of method which, in line with the project idea, emphasize active

child-life experiences as media of education. There has also been considerable use of such phrases as "creative education" and "creative expression," in some cases implying special encouragement for pupils of original talent in literature, the arts, and science (an idea underlying honors courses, experimental colleges, etc. in higher education as well as some developments in elementary and secondary schools), and in other cases extended to the conception that every pupil, of whatever age or mentality, is capable of self-expressive activities that are "creative" for him.

There are various gradations in the use of projects or child-activity units—the reorganization of the whole course of study into "major projects" cutting across old-fashioned subject-matter divisions; the organization of some particular subject course into a series of projects designed to supply all of the necessary learning; introducing into the course some work on a drive, school or community welfare project, or the like; using class projects of dramatization, writing, drawing, construction, etc., to vitalize the treatment of particular portions of the course; and individual or small-group projects as optional extra work. A general idea of the method may be obtained from chapters in the books cited in an early paragraph of this paper, or more in detail from books such as those under title of *The Project Method* by M. E. Branom (1918) and by John A. Stevenson (1921). There may also be found a number of books describing schools organized on a project basis or going in strongly for projects and related types of education—Rugg and Shumaker's *The Child-Centered School* (1928) to cite one of the best known—while there are frequent reports on such work in particular schools in the periodicals (especially in *Progressive Education* and in *Educational Method*, journals which have a particular leaning in this direction). For a composite view of extensions of "progressive" methods into the high school field (on which the literature is much less prolific than on the elementary and especially the primary grades), see the group of articles on "Problems of the Progressive Secondary School" in *Progressive Education* for October, 1928, and articles in April, 1929, and November, 1931; while the October, 1925, issue was devoted to the social studies (though not particularly in the secondary school). There is one recent book on the project method as applied to the high school field, *Progressive Teaching in Secondary Schools* (1931), by Ellsworth Collings, who was previously well known for his experimentation and writings on a thoroughgoing project system for elementary schools. Regarding projects utilized specifically in social science teaching, see two articles by R. W. Hatch, *Teachers College Record*, November, 1920, and *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, February, 1922; and several brief articles each, contributed by various teachers, in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for February, 1924, May, 1925, May, 1926, November, 1927, January, 1928, and October, 1930. Among books in the field, Knowlton's *Making History Graphic* (1925) and Hatch's *Training in Citizenship* (1927) are suggestive.

THE PROBLEM

There is a close connection between projects and problems. Some writers even classify problems as one type of project (in a broad sense of that term), while, from another point of view, a project might be said to constitute a species of problem. A distinction may nevertheless be made for convenience of terminology. If a project is aimed at an objective product, a problem is aimed at the solution of an intellectual difficulty. (It may be noted that this so-called solution of the intellectual difficulty may sometimes well be an open-minded understanding of the points involved rather than an attempt at finality of decision.) The use of problems in teaching may range through the same gamut listed for projects—from a course of study made up of the investigation and discussion of a series of problems whose by-product will be the desired learning, to the use of illustrative problems in developing and applying the content of various units in a course, and to the use of small problems or problem-questions in incidental ways in class treatment and in individual assignments. We shall not attempt to go into a fuller discussion of the problem method here—not to imply that it is unimportant but for quite an opposite reason. While some special developments of problem-solving procedure may be set into their niches as "new methods" of instruction or may be important features of some of the new methods discussed elsewhere in this paper, the basic use of problems and the problematic approach should be an old standby of social science teaching. Teachers should be familiar with a variety of methods and make use of them where conditions are suitable, but no method is better for basic and frequent use than thoughtful, intelligent class discussion of problems, past and present.

SOCIALIZED PROCEDURE

The use of projects and various other methods discussed in this paper go along with an increased and more self-directed participation of the pupils in the operations and management of the class. To this phase of method the term socialized procedure has been applied. This may be simply an informal increase in the freedom of pupils' participation, or it may be more formal and organized, either as a permanent thing or just temporarily while some particular topic or project is in progress. Debates, dramatizations, construction projects, etc., will call for at least some degree of such socialized organization. A class may organize itself on the model of some legislative or other governmental body, either to dramatize the problems which actually came before that body, or as a scheme by which the class can manage various other activities and discussions for itself. A class club may be organized, either to assist in planning and conducting the work of the class as a whole, or to manage certain supplementary activities. The chief dangers lie in attempting such things with a class which is not sufficiently motivated and trained for the responsibilities thus placed upon it; too much elaboration of machinery; and either too much or too little direction by the teacher. The teacher is "in the background"

but the happy medium between too much bossing and too much abdication is rather more difficult to find and maintain than the position of the teacher managing the traditional class procedure. The term "socialized recitation," now partly superseded by the broader term "socialized procedure," got a bad name in some quarters because of examples of how a rather poor type of old-fashioned question-and-answer recitation can be made still poorer by allowing immature pupils to conduct it for themselves, and this sort of thing must, of course, be guarded against. There are two little books under the title, *The Socialized Recitation*, by W. L. Whitney (1915) and C. L. Robbins (1920); and articles on socialized recitations in the social studies in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, May, 1919, March, 1920, February, 1924, October, 1926, and January, 1928. To quite an extent, however, the literature on this topic merges with that on projects and activity programs cited in a previous paragraph.

SOME RELATED TOPICS

In closing this paper it may be helpful to refer briefly to some other lines of "new" development in education which link up with those treated above but which would lead us too far afield to discuss separately here. The selection, arrangement, and organization of the content of the curriculum is a matter especially linked with several topics covered in this paper. See Earl Rugg's composite volume of *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship* (1928); the *Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Yearbooks* of the Department of Superintendence (1925 to 1928); *Twenty-Second Yearbook, Part II*, of the National Society for the Study of Education (1923); or the grouped articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, December, 1923, January and June, 1924, December, 1929, and December, 1930. Recent thought on the determining of

objectives, in relation to curriculum and methods, may be seen in some of the foregoing references; in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* articles in December, 1927, March, 1928, November and December, 1930, and January, 1931; and in the growing literature on citizenship and character training. Tests, which too often tend to run off into elaborations of mechanism and which need to be held closely in harmony with sound objectives and with good methods for achieving them, have been given especially full treatment by *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* in April, 1927, January, 1929, February and October, 1930, and January, 1932, and by several contributors in *The Second Yearbook* (1932) of the National Council for the Social Studies. Also there are various phases of method in relation to materials of instruction—textbooks, workbooks, notebooks, maps, supplementary reading, source material, visual instruction, the materials of current events, etc.—some of which have been incidentally touched upon in the foregoing pages, and which may be pursued further in some of the references in the introductory paragraphs of this paper. Finally there are a number of things which are primarily administrative but at the same time greatly affect teaching method—grouping and programming of pupils for purposes of instruction, departmentalization and correlation of various courses and activities in and out of the curriculum, articulation of these as between successive grades or types of schools, community relations, provision and utilization of school building and equipment. It is the place of the classroom teacher, of course, to take advantage of whatever opportunities the administrative situation affords, and to use those methods which are most effective in that situation, but also to cooperate understandingly with the administrative and supervisory authorities toward securing conditions which will make still better results possible.

Experimenting With the Unit Plan of Organization

By HENRY A. SWETS

Chicago Christian High School

During the last school year I used the mastery system of instruction in the American History class of the Chicago Christian High School. The class had a membership of thirty pupils and had previously taken history courses in which methods other than the unit method were used. The initial step in setting forth the plan lay in the division of American History into eight large units which were again divided into subordinate parts called elements. Each division suggests the significant aspects of a given period in American History. Everything in the course found a basis in these eight units which are here presented.

Unit I. Discovery and Exploration of the Americas.—15 days.

- A. Western Europe Before 1492.
- B. Discovery and Naming of the Americas.
- C. Spanish and French Explorers.
- D. English Explorers.

Unit II. Settlement and Conquest of the Americas.—20 days.

- A. Reasons for Colonization.
- B. The English Colonies.
- C. English Colonial Life and Institutions.
- D. The French and Spanish Domains.
- E. Struggle for Supremacy in North America.

Unit III. Revolution and Formation of the Union.—25 days.

- A. England's Commercial Policy.
- B. The War for Independence.
- C. The Articles of Confederation.
- D. The Making and the Adoption of the Constitution.

Unit IV. Nationalism and Jeffersonian Democracy.—25 days.

- A. The Establishment of the National Government.
- B. The Federalist Regime.
- C. The Frontier and Jeffersonian Democracy.
- D. Social and Economic Conditions Around 1800.

Unit V. Expansion and Sectionalism.—25 days.

- A. The Industrial Revolution in America.
- B. Jacksonian Democracy.
- C. Territorial Expansion.
- D. The Rise of Sections.

Unit VI. Civil Strife and the Emergence of a New Nation.—25 days.

- A. Secession.
- B. The Civil War.
- C. Reconstruction in the South and in the North.
- D. Republican Supremacy.

Unit VII. Economic Revolution and Progressive Democracy.—20 days.

- A. The New Industrial Age.
- B. America as a World Power.
- C. The Progressive Movement in Politics.
- D. The Roosevelt Era.

Unit VIII. World Politics and Post World-War America.—25 days.

- A. Wilson's Administration to 1914.
- B. The United States and the World War.
- C. The United States After the World War.

For each unit a guide-sheet was constructed. This guide-sheet included the main topics that were to be considered under each element and also the best references to be used in the mastery of the unit. Most of the books listed were already in the school library or were added to it. The guide-sheet gave the pupils definite information of the historical materials to be mastered and of suggestive sources to be used in gaining that end.

The next sheet given to the pupil was the work sheet. Based upon the previous sheets, this consisted of a number of projects or things to do,—all having the purpose of bringing about the mastery of the unit according to the outline and the references given on the first sheet and of reaching the desired standards of attainment. The projects are diverse; they provide for drawing maps, outlining movements, mastering a few dates—events, identifying persons, explaining terms, and the like.

Before the pupil began work on these projects he had to be familiar in a general way with the field to be covered. In order to bring this about, either I gave a preliminary survey by sketching the main thread of the story or the pupil read the whole story through rapidly in some textbook. At this stage a presentation test would be given,—usually an objective test requiring a knowledge of the chief points in the period covered by the unit. From this point on the pupil was on his own. He attacked the projects in the order he chose and worked on them in the classroom, in the study-hall and at home. The class hour was spent in supervised study, in class discussions at fixed times and whenever special problems arose, and in the giving of special reports.

The textbook was thus relegated to a minor place in the course, and since a number of books had to

be used if the demands of the worksheet were to be satisfied, the very term "collateral reading" became a misnomer. All the reading became purposive, a means to an end, the end being the mastery of the unit. Concerning this, one of my pupils commented as follows: "Not only does the student meet authors and read up on material from five or six sources but gradually he gets the yearning to pick up a history book and read through it." Thus also, the pupils learned how to use books. The preface, the table of contents, the index, and the appendices of a book became meaningful to them.

Since the unit plan obviated the necessity of a daily assignment, flexibility and variety were introduced into the classroom procedure. The members of the class did not all work at the same task at the same time and in the same way but the pupils could choose between a variety of activities. In the periods when the classroom was converted into a laboratory, opportunity was given me for individualized instruction. The weak I could encourage while I guided the strong. The course was rather readily adapted to such individual differences; in fact, the pupil found his own level. In carrying out the prescribed activities the weakest pupil could not be expected to go much beyond the assimilation and presentation of textbook material while the abler the pupil was the richer one could expect his contribution to be.

Part of the results obtained by the pupils was reported on orally, but a number of projects were written up and handed in at the close of the allotted time for the unit. Upon the completion of a unit two tests were given, the one being an assimilation test, in which the pupil, without notes, wrote an information outline or constructive analysis of the material he had gathered for all or part of a unit, and the second being an objective or new-type test constructed by myself and based on the entire unit.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

Guide Sheet for Unit I

DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION OF THE AMERICAS

- A. Western Europe Before 1492.—Western Europe in the Dark Ages; the Crusades and their effects; trade with the Far East; broadening influences of the Renaissance; invention of printing and spread of ideas; geographical knowledge; prevalence of national states; fall of Constantinople
- B. Discovery and Naming of the Americas.—The Norse expeditions; Christopher Columbus and his voyages; significance of his voyages; voyage of Americo Vespucci; Waldseemüller and the naming of the Americas; demarcation line
- C. Spanish and French Explorers.—Balboa and the Pacific; Magellan circumnavigates the globe; Cortez and Mexico; Pizarro and Peru; expeditions of Ponce de Leon; Cabeza de Vaca; Hernando de Soto; Coronado; explorations north of the Gulf of Mexico; Verrazano and Cartier; motives of French and Spanish explorers
- D. English Explorers.—The "sea-dogs"; defeat of the Spanish Armada; search for a northwest passage; Eng-

lish supremacy of the sea; Gilbert and Raleigh; motives of English explorers

References for Unit I

- Bassett, J. S. *A Short History of the United States*, pp. 1-40.
 Becker, C. L. *Beginnings of the American People*, pp. 1-64.
 Bogart, E. L. *Economic History of the United States*, pp. 1-33.
 Bolton & Marshall, *The Colonization of North America*, pp. 1-84.
 Channing, E. *History of the United States*, I, 1-75.
 Cheyney, E. P. *European Background of American History*, pp. 1-140.
 Coman, K. *Industrial History of the U.S.*, pp. 1-21.
 Elson, H. W. *History of the United States of America*, pp. 1-44.
 Fiske, J. *The Discovery of America*, all.
 Fite, E. D. *History of the United States*, pp. 1-37.
 Halsey, F. W. *Great Epochs in American History*, Vol. I, all.
 Hart, A. B. *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, 28-101.
 Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 1-35.
 Muzzey, D. S. *Readings in American History*, pp. 1-23.
 Priestly, H. I. *The Coming of the White Man*, pp. 1-103.
 Richman, I. B. *The Spanish Conquerors*, all.
 Sparks, E. E. *Expansion of the American People*, pp. 9-35.
 Usher, R. G. *The Rise of the American People*, pp. 3-17.
 West, W. M. *Modern Progress*, pp. 88-180.
 Wood, W. *The Elizabethan Sea-Dogs*, all.

Guide Sheet for Unit II

SETTLEMENT AND CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS

- A. Reasons for Colonization.—Economic revolution in England; influx of gold and rise of prices; enclosures and evictions; increased rents; confiscation of monastic lands; "overpopulation"; need for raw materials and for markets; religious differences; national rivalries; trading companies
 B. The English Colonies.—London and Plymouth Companies; their charters; Virginia; Puritan New England; proprietary colonies: Maryland, Carolinas, New Amsterdam and New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Georgia
 C. English Colonial Life and Institutions.—Classes of population; indentured servants and negro slaves; occupations; religion; schools and colleges; educational methods; books and newspapers; types of colonial governments; political features common to all colonies; laws and punishments; amusements and recreations
 D. The French and Spanish Domains.—Colonies established; extent of Spanish occupation; French in Canada and Mississippi Valley; French ideas of colonization; comparison of French and Spanish colonies with English colonies
 E. Struggle for Supremacy in North America.—Commercial rivalry; idea of balance of power; England defeats Spain; mercantilism; clash between French and English; expulsion of French; effects on colonies

References for Unit II

- Adams, James Truslow. *Provincial Society*, all.
 Andrews, C. M. *Fathers of New England*, all.
 Bassett, J. S. *A Short History of the United States*, 41-90.
 Beard & Beard. *The Rise of American Civilization*, pp. 1-227.
 Becker, C. *Beginnings of the American People*, pp. 65-124.
 Channing, E. *History of the United States*, I, 485-537; II, all.
 Coman, K. *Industrial History of the U. S.*, pp. 7-79.
 Earle, A. M. *Home Life in Colonial Days*, all.
 Eggleston, E. *Beginners of a Nation*, pp. 1-72.
 Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 45-199.
 Fiske, J. *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*, all.
 Fiske, J. *The Beginnings of New England*, all.
 Halsey, E. *Great Epochs in American History*, Vols. II & III.

Hart, A. B. *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I & II.

Jernegan, M. *The American Colonies*, all.

Johnson, M. *Pioneers of the Old South*, all.

Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 36-105.
 Thwaites, R. G. *France in America*, pp. 3-34; 89-143; 239-280.

Wertenbaker, T. J. *The First Americans*, all.

Wrong, G. M. *The Conquest of New France*, all.

Guide Sheet for Unit III

REVOLUTION AND FORMATION OF THE UNION

- A. England's Commercial Policy.—Colonies flourish in neglect; new colonial policy under Charles II, mercantile theory of trade; acts of trade; measures for enforcing acts of trade; effect of colonies; sugar and molasses act of 1733; prosperity of the colonies
 B. The War for Independence.—Remote and immediate causes; steps in patriot organization; Declaration of Independence and its effects; First and Second Continental Congresses; campaigns: in the north, in the middle states, in the south, in the west, on the sea; causes of American successes; continental finances; foreign affairs; loyalists; treaty of peace.
 C. The Articles of Confederation.—Social and economic effects of the war; the political situation; formation of Articles of Confederation; nature of articles; forces tending towards union and towards disunion; northwest ordinance; finances of the confederation; foreign relations under the confederation; impotence of Congress; attempts to amend articles.
 D. The Making and the Adoption of the Constitution.—Proposals for a stronger government; economic and political forces; antecedents of the Convention of 1787; the Federal Convention; membership; plans submitted; compromises agreed upon; the struggle over ratification

References for Unit III

- Beard and Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*, pp. 189-296.
 Becker, C. *Beginnings of the American People*, pp. 125-275.
 Becker, C. *The Eve of the Revolution*, all.
 Channing, E. *History of the United States*, III, 315-550.
 Coman, K. *Industrial History of the United States*, pp. 89-105.
 Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 201-317.
 Elson, H. W. *Side Lights on American History*, I, 3-53.
 Farrand, M. *The Fathers of the Constitution*, all.
 Fiske, J. *The Critical Period in American History*, pp. 90-350.
 Fiske, J. *The American Revolution*, I & II.
 Guitteau, W. B. *Government and Politics in the U. S.*, pp. 207-234.
 Hart, A. B. *Formation of the Union*, pp. 102-135.
 Hart, A. B. *American Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, II & III, passim.
 Halsey, F. W. *Great Epochs in American History*, III, all.
 Hockett, H. *Political & Social History of the U. S.*, pp. 144-225.
 Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 106-175.
 McLaughlin, A. C. *The Confederation & the Constitution*, passim.
 Schlesinger, A. M. *New Viewpoints in American History*, pp. 160-184.
 Swift, Lucius B. *How We Got Our Liberties*, pp. 150-192.
 Usher, R. G. *The Rise of the American People*, pp. 73-181.
 Bigelow, J. (ed.) *Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*, all.

Guide Sheet for Unit IV

NATIONALISM AND JEFFERSONIAN DEMOCRACY

- A. The Establishment of the National Government.—Transition from old to new government; inauguration; organization of executive department; organization of judicial department; amendments to the constitution; Hamilton's financial measures; nationalizing effects; rise of political parties; rigid versus loose construction
 B. The Federalist Regime.—Re-election of Washington;

- party strife; foreign entanglements; neutrality; Jay and Pinckney treaties; election of Adams; quarrel with France; alien and sedition acts; Virginia and Kentucky resolutions; downfall of Federalists
- C. The Frontier and Jeffersonian Democracy.—A revolution in government; Jefferson's political theories; retrenchment; civil service and judiciary; migration to the northwest; Louisiana purchase; embargo and non-intercourse; warhawks from the west; war of 1812; attitude of New England; outcome of the war; completion of our independence
- D. Social and Economic Conditions around 1800.—Population; industries and commerce; aristocracy versus democracy; democratizing influence of the frontier; foreign trade; the backwoodsmen; social customs; religious conditions

References for Unit IV

- Bassett, J. S. *The Federalist System*, all.
- Beard, C. A. *The Rise of American Civilization*, I, 297-543.
- Bowers, C. J. *Jefferson and Hamilton*, all.
- Bruce, H. A. *The Romance of American Expansion*, pp. 1-51.
- Coman, K. *Industrial History of the United States*, pp. 132-156.
- Corwin, E. *John Marshall and the Constitution*, all.
- Dodd, W. E. *Statesmen of the Old South*, pp. 1-167.
- Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 322-435.
- Farrand, M. *The Development of the United States*, pp. 77-165.
- Fish, C. R. *The Rise of the Common Man*, passim.
- Fish, C. R. *American Diplomacy*, pp. 62-135.
- Ford, H. J. *Washington and His Colleagues*, all.
- Hockett, H. *Political and Social History of the U. S.*, pp. 224-346.
- Johnson, A. *Jefferson and His Colleagues*, all.
- Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 177-222.
- Paine, R. D. *The Fight for a Free Sea*, all.
- Paxson, F. L. *History of the American Frontier*, pp. 87-122.
- Roosevelt, T. R. *Winning of the West*, IV, 258-328.
- Skinner, C. L. *Pioneers of the Old South West*, all.
- Sparks, E. E. *The Expansion of the American People*, pp. 118-300.
- Usher, R. G. *The Rise of the American People*, pp. 182-240.

Guide Sheet for Unit V

EXPANSION AND SECTIONALISM

- A. The Industrial Revolution in America.—Inventions: steam engine, steam boat, "iron horse", spinning mills, sewing machines, telegraph, cable, reaper; industry outstrips planting; canals and railways improve transportation; immigration supplies labor; organized labor; industrial revolution and national politics
- B. Jacksonian Democracy.—Election of Jackson; decline of aristocracy; increase in popular rights; humanitarian movements; Jackson as president; spoils system; kitchen cabinet; war on the bank; nullification; Indian affairs; new Whig party; election of Van Buren; "Wildcat" banks; over-speculation; panic of 1837; public land question; campaign of 1840; end of Jacksonian era
- C. Territorial Expansion.—Webster-Ashburton Treaty, 1842; "reannexation of Texas and reoccupation of Oregon"; Mexican War; Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo; claims to Oregon; Oregon settlement, 1846; California and the forty-niners; Gadsden Purchase; Mormon trek; new states; Ostend manifesto; manifest destiny
- D. The Rise of Sections.—Slave trade; Missouri Compromise; tariff of abominations; Webster-Hayne debate; nullification; abolition movement; Clay's American system; slaveholders and the Mexican War; Wilmot proviso; Compromise of 1850; "higher law"; "Underground Railroad"; Kansas-Nebraska act; squatter sovereignty; civil war in Kansas; birth of Republican party; Lincoln-Douglas debates; John Brown's raid; Uncle Tom's Cabin

References for Unit V

- Beard, *Rise of American Civilization*, pp. 542-624.

- Coman, K. *Industrial History of the U. S.*, pp. 207-268.
- Dodd, W. E. *The Cotton Kingdom*, (Chron.), all.
- Dodd, W. E. *Expansion and Conflict*, all.
- Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 468-601.
- Fish, C. R. *The Rise of the Common Man*, passim.
- Halsey, *Great Epochs in American History*, Vols. VI & VII.
- Hart, A. B. *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III.
- Hough, Emerson. *The Passing of the Frontier*, (Chron.), all.
- MacDonald, W. *Jacksonian Democracy*, all.
- Macy, Jesse. *The Anti-Slavery Crusade*, (Chron.), all.
- Sparks, E. E. *The Expansion of the American People*, pp. 259-365.
- Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 260-340.
- Ogg, F. A. *The Reign of Andrew Jackson*, (Chron.), all.
- Orth, S. P. *The Armies of Labor*, (Chron.), all.
- Orth, S. P. *The Boss and the Machine*, (Chron.), all.
- Stephenson, S. W. *Texas and the Mexican War*, (Chron.), all.
- White, S. E. *The Forty-Niners*, (Chron.), all.

Guide Sheet for Unit VI

CIVIL STRIFE AND EMERGENCE OF A NEW NATION

- A. Secession.—Election of 1860; schism in the Democratic convention, Seward vs. Lincoln; four parties; election of Lincoln; cause of Secession; South Carolina takes first step; position of border states; the confederate government; right of secession; Buchanan's attitude; attempts at compromise; seizure of U. S. property; Star of the West; Lincoln's inauguration; Fort Sumter
- B. The Civil War.—Causes and occasion; relative strength of North and South; the call to arms; the blockade; Bull Run; Lincoln and the war; foreign affairs; naval warfare; Miss. Valley and Peninsular Campaigns; Antietam and emancipation; democratic opposition; Vicksburg and Gettysburg; final "double movement"; gloom in the North; 1864; closing campaigns; assassination of Lincoln; peace; the cost of the war
- C. Reconstruction in the South and in the North.—Lincoln's plan; struggle with Congress; Thaddeus Stevens; Wade Davis Manifesto; Andrew Johnson and reconstruction; the slavery amendments; great reconstruction act; the critical year, 1866; carpetbag rule; solid South; force bills; withdrawal of troops; "tragic era" in the North
- D. Republican Supremacy.—Lincoln's administrations; impeachment of Johnson; bloody flag; purchase of Alaska; Grant and corruption; liberal Republican movement; treaty of Washington, 1871; Geneva award; panic of 1873; the Centennial, disputed presidential election; assassination of Garfield; civil service reform; Cleveland elected

References for Unit VI

- Beard, *Rise of American Civilization*, II, pp. 3-211.
- Dodd, W. E. *Expansion and Conflict*, pp. 231-328.
- Dunning, W. A. *Reconstruction Pol. and Econ.*, all.
- Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 593-842.
- Fite, E. D. *Social and Industr. Cond. in North During Civil War*, all.
- Fish, *American Diplomacy*, pp. 304-370.
- Fleming, W. L. *The Sequel of Appomattox*, (Chron.), all.
- Hart, A. B. *American History told by Contemporaries*, IV.
- Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 340-453.
- Nevins, Allan. *The Emergence of Modern America*, all.
- Oberholtzer, E. P. *A History of the U. S. Since the Civil War*.
- Bowers, Claude. *The Tragic Era*, all.
- Schlessinger, *Political and Social History of the U. S.*, pp. 192-260.
- Shippee, *Recent American History*, pp. 1-149.
- Stephenson, N. W. *Abraham Lincoln and the Union*, (Chron.) all.
- Stephenson, N. W. *The Day of the Confederacy*, (Chron.) all.
- Thompson, *The New South*, (Chron.) all.

Guide Sheet for Unit VII

ECONOMIC REVOLUTION AND PROGRESSIVE DEMOCRACY

- A. The New Industrial Age.—War and tariff stimulate industry; rapid settlement of the West; great development of natural resources; organization of capitalistic corporations; big business; agrarian unrest; labor organization and agitation; Crisis of 1873; growth of railroads; Interstate Commerce Act; Cleveland and the Tariff; McKinley Tariff; Sherman Anti-Trust Act; the currency question, 1893; campaign of 1896
- B. America as a World Power.—Foreign relations, 1880-1898; Chinese exclusion, Samoa, Bering Sea Fisheries, Italy, Chile, England and Venezuela, Hawaii; causes of Spanish-American War; the war; treaty of peace; results of the war; government of the new possessions
- C. The Progressive Movement in Politics.—The boss and the machine; the "shame of the cities"; muck-raking; La Follette and the Wisconsin movement; direct primaries; popular election of senators; the woman's movement and woman suffrage; initiative, referendum, and recall; insurgency in the Republican party; opposition to high tariff; trusts, czarism, and machine politics; campaign of 1912
- D. The Roosevelt Era.—Growth in population; labor and immigration; the trust question; attitude of Roosevelt; conservation of natural resources; coal strike; crusade for pure food; transportation problems; extension of Monroe Doctrine; Panama Canal; Boxer rebellion and the "open door"; Russo-Japanese war; Roosevelt and Taft; election of Wilson

References for Unit VII

- Beard, C. A. *Rise of American Civilization*, II, 166-608.
 Buck, Solon J. *The Agrarian Crusade* (Chron.), all.
 Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 822-907.
 Fish, C. R. *The Path of Empire* (Chron.), all.
 Ford, H. J. *The Cleveland Era* (Chron.), all.
 Hart, A. B. *Am. Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, IV and V.
 Hendrick, B. J. *The Age of Big Business*, (Chron.), all.
 La Follette, R. M. *Autobiography*, all.
 Moody, John. *The Railroad Builders* (Chron.), all.
 Moody, John. *The Masters of Capital* (Chron.), all.
 Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 424-580.
 Orth, S. P. *The Armies of Labor* (Chron.), all.
 Orth, S. P. *The Boss and the Machine* (Chron.), all.
 Paxson, F. *Recent History of the United States*, pp. 86-392.
 Peck, H. T. *Twenty Years of the Republic* (1885-1905), all.
 Shippee, L. B. *Recent American History*, pp. 93-364.
 Sullivan, Mark. *Our Times: The Turn of the Century*, all.
 Sullivan, Mark. *Our Times: America Finding Herself*, all.
 Schlesinger, A. M. *Pol. and Soc. History of the United States*, II, 315.
 Thompson, Holland. *The Age of Invention* (Chron.), all.

Guide Sheet for Unit VIII

WORLD POLITICS AND POST WORLD-WAR AMERICA

- A. Wilson's Administration to 1914.—Republicans moved from power; Wilson a minority president; Underwood Tariff; Tariff Commission; Federal Reserve Act; Clayton Anti-Trust Act; Federal Trade Commission; labor legislation; control over San Domingo and Haiti; Mexican Revolution and "watchful waiting"; Villa chase; purchase of Danish West Indies; repeal of Panama Canal Toll's Act; Bryan arbitration treaties
- B. The United States and the World War.—Forces working for and against neutrality; violations of neutrality; submarine warfare; "willful men"; division of sentiment upon the World War; election of 1916; declaration of war, April 6, 1917; reasons for American entrance; the draft; military and naval participation of the United States; new methods of warfare; war finance; government control of commerce, transportation, food, fuel, industry, and labor; curtailment of liberties; Fourteen Points; Armistice, November 11, 1918; peace treaties; League of Nations; Senate versus President; effects of the war upon the United States

- C. The United States After the World War.—Readjustment; demobilization and decentralization; shipping and railroad problems; Amendments XVII and XIX; election of Harding; "back to normalcy"; graft and corruption in high places; Washington Disarmament Conference; budget system; soldiers' bonus; war debts; Dawes Plan; restriction of immigration; World Court; world peace movements; radio; social changes; Lindbergh's flight; labor troubles; farm relief; depression; current events

References for Unit VIII

- Bassett, J. S. *Our War With Germany*, all.
 Beard, C. A. *Rise of American Civilization*, II, 608-800.
 Beard and Beard, *History of the United States*, pp. 506-675.
 Dodd, W. E. *Woodrow Wilson and His Work*, all.
 Elson, H. W. *History of the United States*, pp. 907-996.
 Gibbons, H. A. *America's Place in the World*, all.
 Hart, A. B. *American Hist. Told by Contemporaries*, V.
 Lippincott, I. *Economic Development of the U. S.*, pp. 611-655.
 Moran, T. F. *American Presidents*, pp. 231-309.
 Muzzey, D. S. *History of the American People*, pp. 581-730.
 Muzzey, D. S. *Readings in American History*, pp. 566-591.
 Paxson, F. *Recent History of the United States*, pp. 393-615.
 Schlesinger, A. M. *Political and Social History of the U. S.*, II, 463-564.
 Seymour, C. *Woodrow Wilson and the World War* (Chron.), all.
 Shippee, L. B. *Recent American History*, pp. 365-566.
 Slosson, P. W. *The Great Crusade and After*, all.

After the "guide sheet" had been distributed, the second form of guidance was handed to the pupils. This was known as a "work sheet" and included various projects, of which the following is an example.

WORKSHEET FOR UNIT V

Expansion and Sectionalism

- Trace the rise of the Industrial System in the United States, taking note especially of the inventions, the growth of industries, the improvements in transportation, the influx of foreign labor, and the effects upon national politics.
- Group together in chronological order the laws, compromises and court decisions that dealt with Slavery. (1820-1860).
- List the chief arguments that were raised for and against slavery by the slave-holders and abolitionists. Who were the leaders of each faction and what did they accomplish?
- Sketch the change from the strong nationalistic feeling to that of sectionalism which marked the period from 1816 to 1860.
- Discuss briefly the social, political and economic changes that made up Jacksonian Democracy.
- List the additions that were made to our domains stating in each case what claims we had to the territory, how we obtained it, and in what way it was of significance.
- Outline the causes, chief events, leaders and results of the Mexican War.
- Discover the leading issues in the presidential campaigns from 1828 to the election of Lincoln. Note the change in party lines and the leaders of each group.
- Discuss the following quotations:
 - "One of the most powerful agencies in shaping the political conscience at the North during the decade preceding the war was *Uncle Tom's Cabin*."
 - "The negro slaves of the South were better off than the wage slaves of the North."
 - "The Mexican War constitutes the blackest page in the history of our country."
- Review briefly the developments in religion, educa-

- tion, journalism, literature, natural science, and the arts of the period we are studying.
11. Show on an outline map the additions to the United States (1830-1860). Indicate the states that were admitted to the union by 1860.
 12. Explain the following terms: abolitionism; states rights; omnibus bill; kitchen cabinet, free soilers; Ostend manifesto; American system; squatter sovereignty; Freeport Doctrine; Filibusters; nullification; exposition and protest; Know-Nothing party; Wilmot proviso; Gadsden Purchase; manifest destiny; gag rule; Ichabod; fifty-four-forty-or-fight; "cotton is king."
 13. Master of the following important dates-events:
 - 1830 Beginning of era of railroad building.
 - 1844 Morse's Telegraph.
 - 1848 Close of Mexican War.
 - 1850 The Great Compromise.
 - 1854 Kansas-Nebraska Act.
 14. Give a detailed biographical sketch of each of the following: John C. Calhoun; Henry Clay; Stephen Douglas; Andrew Jackson; Daniel Webster; John G. Whittier; Horace Greeley.
 15. Identify briefly the following: Henry Ward Beecher; John Brown; Nicholas Biddle, Preston Brooks, Lewis Cass, David Crockett, Thomas R. Dew, John C. Fremont, Wm. Lloyd Garrison, Robert Hayne, Sam Houston, Louis Kossuth, James R. Lowell, Cyrus McCormick, James Polk, John Tyler, Lucretia Mott, Peggy O'Neal, Theodore Parker, Wendell Phillips, Joseph Smith, Harriet B. Stowe, Roger B. Taney, Martin Van Buren.
 16. Report briefly on one historical novel and one biography dealing with the period covered by this unit.
 17. Name the books you have used in studying this unit and give an appraisal of them.

Economics in the Press

By GEORGE O. HESS

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In the words of Harap, this investigation belongs to "that class of studies which uses quantitative data describing actual life conditions in order to determine what shall be learned in school."¹ This is to report a study of the relative emphasis of the various economic topics in selected newspapers and magazines for the year from June 1, 1931 to June 1, 1932.²

A number of studies of the relative importance of science topics in newspapers and magazines have been made since the study of Finley and Caldwell.³ At least one such study has been made for sociology,⁴ and investigators working with Rugg have analyzed books for the field of social science,⁵ but so far as the writer has been able to determine this is the first newspaper and magazine study as a basis for the high school course of study in economics.

Such studies as this are made in the belief that one of the major objectives of high school subjects is to give the student an understanding of the material he will read in newspapers and magazines. To adapt the course of study to this objective a knowledge of what topics related to this subject are discussed in widely read newspapers and magazines, and of the relative emphasis on each, will be of value.

Insofar as newspapers and magazines correctly estimate the relative importance of various topics to their readers and base the emphasis in the periodicals accordingly, an objective study of this emphasis will judge the importance of the topic for other than reading objectives.

From cross references within articles to other topics some evidence may be obtained as to sequence and groupings of topics.

No person making studies of this sort claims that they should be the sole basis for emphasis of topics in the course of study. Other purposes than that of helping with reading must play a part in determining the course of study. Some economic topics rarely mentioned in newspapers and magazines may be basic to the understanding of other much emphasized topics. The learning process necessitates drill on some topics, if they are to be taught at all, beyond the relative importance of the topic. No matter how much objective data is collected as a basis for the course of study, subjective manipulation of this data will be desirable and necessary.

Events during the year of the study may have resulted in exaggerated emphasis of certain topics. Some of these events were the panic situation in the business world, the collapse of central European and South American credit, the leaving of the gold standard by England and other countries, the demand for "immediate cash payment of the soldiers' bonus," and the budget difficulties of national, state, and local governments.

The magazines used in this study were the *Saturday Evening Post*, the *Literary Digest*, the *American Magazine*, and the *Pictorial Review*. All of these magazines had a circulation of 1,500,000 or more in 1929.⁶ Each is of a different type, appealing to different readers. Two newspapers were used: the *Chicago Tribune* with a daily circulation of 809,165 and a Sunday circulation of 1,105,840, and the Hibbing (Minnesota) *Daily Tribune*, a local paper with a daily circulation of 5,465 (no Sunday edition).

The original selection of economic topics and groups of topics for use in this study was based on an analysis of four high school and three col-

lege texts in economics. During the course of the study the topics so chosen were added to, changed in wording and grouping, and reclassified, enough data being recorded for each article to permit this manipulation. An outline was made of the precise concepts to be included under each topic and this outline was kept in front of the writer during the analysis of the publications. These definitions are included in the full report of the investigation.

Every issue of the magazine was studied, but only every eighth issue of the newspapers. By sampling the newspapers at eight rather than seven day intervals a sampling was obtained of each day in the week. The study also covered every season of the year.

Each article was recorded and filed on three by five paper, the record giving the main economic topic, references to other economic topics, the measurements of the article, the name of the article, the pages, issue and name of the publication.

Only articles whose main topic was one of the eighty-one economic topics selected by the textbook investigation were studied. Advertisements, pictures, diagrams, and illustrations were not included in any way in this study. Stock and bond market quotations and commodity market reports were included, being classified with the discussions of the markets. Main headings and sub-titles were not included. Allusions to economic topics in non-economic articles were not studied.

The analysis covered 4,173 magazine and newspaper articles, containing an estimate of 2,308,066 words and 9,247 references to economic topics.

An estimate of the number of words in the articles was found by measuring the article in square inches and multiplying by the number of words per square inch as determined by an analysis of samplings. Square inches were used rather than linear inches because of the gross inaccuracies which wide variations in column widths would introduce into linear inch results. No attempt was made to separate measurements according to type size or word or line spacing within the same publication. This inclusion of all type sizes in the averages of number of words per square inch, and measuring of articles without regard to type size, was not entirely based on the belief that greater accuracy would be pseudo-accuracy. It was also felt that the word count so obtained was in reality a measure of space values in the publication, and that space value was a more valid measure than a more exact counting of words.

Each topic and each group was treated as exclusive. Material classified under one topic or group was not classified under any other. This permits new groupings of topics by simple addition, and permits withdrawal of topics which may not be con-

sidered economic by simple subtraction from the totals recorded.

This study shows three measures of the relative importance attached to each economic topic: (1) the number of articles dealing primarily with the particular topic, (2) the space value accorded each topic in articles about the topic, expressed in terms of an estimate of the number of words used, and (3) the number of references to each economic topic, including the main topic of the article and the cross references, in economic articles. The same measures are also applied to groupings of these topics, except that the number of references for the group is the sum of the references to the topics included in the group.

The reliability of this study was checked by correlating the results of the two measures of comparison of the relative emphasis of the topics and groups: (1) the per cent that the estimated number of words in articles about each topic or group was of the total number of words, and (2) the per cent that the number of references to each topic or group was of the total number of references. (See Tables 2 and 3.) The coefficient of reliability obtained for the topic distribution was .859 with a probable error of .196. The coefficient of reliability for the group distribution was .914 with a probable error of .285. Evidently something besides chance variation was measured, and evidently the two measures measured approximately the same thing. These coefficients also indicate a degree of consistency in the classification of material under topics and groups.

Although not of value in constructing the course of study, it is of interest to compare the results for the various publications. The small amount of space given to economic topics in the *Pictorial Review* is noticeable. A scanning of other women's magazines shows that this is also true of other magazines in this field. The newspapers gave more attention to the stock and bond markets than to any other topic, while the magazines gave most attention to discussions of business conditions.

The *Saturday Evening Post* gave more space to world economic conditions and problems than did the other publications. The *Post* and the *American* gave more space to merchandising than the other publications. The *Post* also gave special attention to the extractive industries, banking problems, and the labor market. It had no articles about collective bargaining or the problems of organized labor, nor did it have any articles on tax reforms or government income.

The *Literary Digest* gave more attention to the determination of the price of goods by the laws of the market than did the other publications. The *Digest* and the *Chicago Tribune* gave unusual em-

phasis to attempts to restrict the supply of goods in order to raise the price. The *Digest* also gave much emphasis to government interference in international trade, to the value of money and its territorial distribution, to the economic effects of inventions, and to wage theories.

The relative emphasis given the various topics in all the publications combined is shown in Table 2 and the relative emphasis of groups in Table 3.

The failure to give much attention to certain topics may be quite as significant as the giving of large amounts of space to other topics. Anarchism is the only topic that lacked even mention in any of the publications studied. It is evidently now a dead issue. It is not very surprising that the science of economics was not discussed, but it is rather surprising, in view of the depression and the activities

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF PUBLICATIONS

Publication	I*	A	R	Words	WPI
<i>Chicago Tribune</i>	46	3,070	5,566	1,200,997	26,109
<i>Hibbing Daily Tribune</i>	45	479	936	124,069	2,757
<i>Saturday Evening Post</i>	52	211	1,195	589,599	11,338
<i>Literary Digest</i>	52	376	1,403	300,597	5,781
<i>American Magazine</i>	12	25	130	81,513	6,793
<i>Pictorial Review</i>	12	12	18	11,191	933

* The column headings mean as follows: "I" is the number of issues of the publication analyzed, "A" is the number of economic articles found in the issues studied, "R" is the number of references to economic topics in the economic articles of the issues studied, counting each reference to a particular topic but once to an article, "Words" is the estimated number of words in the economic articles of the issues studied, and "WPI" is the estimated number of words per issue in the economic articles.

TABLE II
THE COMPARATIVE EMPHASIS OF THE VARIOUS ECONOMIC TOPICS IN ALL THE PUBLICATIONS STUDIED;
ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER*

O	Key	Topic	A	R	%R	Words	%W
1	J 4	Stock and bond markets	843	1127	12.19	626,215	27.13
2	B 3	Business conditions	355	748	8.09	195,745	8.48
3	J 2	Commodity exchanges	672	701	7.58	159,092	6.89
4	O 8	Government lending and borrowing	152	323	3.49	130,134	5.64
5	O 2	Government aid	211	447	4.83	114,182	4.95
6	O 4	Government budget	189	294	3.18	111,695	4.84
7	C 2	Socialism	66	105	1.14	67,060	2.91
8	B 4	Government regulation	113	271	2.93	57,087	2.47
9	J 1	Merchandising	16	58	0.63	52,138	2.26
10	J 3	Extractive industries	61	161	1.74	52,116	2.26
11	J 6	Banking	43	144	1.56	47,073	2.04
12	B 2	Industrial methods	46	83	0.90	45,034	1.95
13	E 6	Transportation	71	182	1.97	43,756	1.90
14	O 5	Kinds of taxes	83	182	1.97	43,119	1.87
15	M 3	Profits	240	346	3.74	28,586	1.24
16	G 2	Value of money	78	210	2.27	27,963	1.21
17	O 9	Government income	60	188	2.03	27,867	1.21
18	E 3	"Law" of supply and demand (goods)	151	569	6.15	27,566	1.19
19	L 2	Handling of capital	31	111	1.20	26,944	1.17
20	H 1	Wants and utility	24	88	0.95	24,843	1.08
21	I 3	Inventions	31	68	0.74	24,459	1.06
22	H 6	"Psychological" demand	16	170	1.84	23,195	1.00
23	O 1	Government services	22	79	0.85	22,568	0.98
24	F 4	Government interference in international trade	28	104	1.12	21,963	0.95
25	E 8	Monopoly	58	170	1.84	21,126	0.92
26	G 4	Money standard	22	104	1.12	19,107	0.83
27	I 5	Conservation	35	59	0.64	18,965	0.82
28	N 8	The labor market	7	51	0.55	16,690	0.72
29	N 5	Distribution of labor	9	21	0.23	15,969	0.69
30	E 2	Competition (goods)	28	108	1.17	13,586	0.59
31	N 10	Collective bargaining	38	84	0.91	13,155	0.57
32	F 2	Territorial division of labor	4	42	0.45	12,893	0.56
33	N 11	Wage rates	35	128	1.38	12,113	0.52
34	N 2	Employment	37	192	2.08	11,915	0.52
35	D 2	Social insurance	13	39	0.42	11,484	0.50
36	D 3	Industrial planning	4	4	0.04	11,338	0.49
37	N 9	Wage theories	9	44	0.48	8,971	0.39
38	L 3	Interest	57	171	1.85	8,865	0.38
39	F 1	Balance of trade	18	77	0.83	7,843	0.34
40	L 4	Supply and demand (capital)	11	157	1.70	7,137	0.31
41	M 2	Entrepreneur methods	5	12	0.13	6,004	0.26
42	B 1	Our economic order	7	28	0.30	5,430	0.24
43	N 1	Population—labor	12	34	0.37	5,188	0.22
44	K 2	Quality and location (rentable agents)	7	27	0.29	5,009	0.22

TABLE II (Continued)

O	Key	Topic	A	R	%R	Words	%W
45	H 7	Advertising	13	35	0.38	4,929	0.21
46	E 9	Prices (goods)	19	124	1.34	4,788	0.21
47	I 2	Costs, resistance	8	77	0.83	4,453	0.19
48	N 3	Leisure class	2	23	0.25	4,158	0.18
49	D 4	Other reforms	5	13	0.14	4,038	0.17
50	J 5	Building industry	7	30	0.33	3,947	0.17
51	C 4	Miscellaneous economic orders	2	6	0.06	3,891	0.17
52	L 1	Kinds of capital	5	47	0.51	3,750	0.16
53	I 1	Production methods	10	45	0.49	3,716	0.16
54	G 3	Money distribution	8	41	0.44	3,602	0.16
55	G 1	Kinds of money	10	49	0.53	3,593	0.16
56	O 6	Income of government enterprises	8	19	0.21	3,562	0.15
57	H 3	Means of purchasing	5	68	0.74	3,426	0.15
58	O 3	Costs of government regulation	6	30	0.32	3,396	0.15
59	E 7	The middleman	3	19	0.21	2,757	0.12
60	F 3	International payments	12	85	0.92	2,735	0.12
61	N 7	Labor quality	5	23	0.25	2,398	0.10
62	O 7	Tax reforms	2	5	0.05	1,940	0.08
63	N 6	War, disease and the labor supply	2	7	0.08	1,892	0.08
64	D 1	Coöperatives	3	11	0.12	1,794	0.08
65	K 3	Rent	3	23	0.25	1,509	0.07
66	O 11	Government handling of funds	4	9	0.10	1,160	0.05
67	K 1	Quantity of rentable agents	2	4	0.04	977	0.04
68	N 4	Women and children in industry	4	9	0.10	959	0.04
69	E 1	Market, descriptive	3	13	0.14	800	0.03
70	H 5	Seasonal demand	2	32	0.35	641	0.03
71	C 1	Barter economy	1	8	0.09	47	0.002
72	E 5	Non-economic attempts at price setting	1	12	0.13	20	0.0009
73	O 10	Inflation for government income	0	27	0.29	0	0.00
74 $\frac{1}{2}$	M 1	The entrepreneur	0	9	0.10	0	0.00
74 $\frac{1}{2}$	E 4	Elasticity and lag	0	9	0.10	0	0.00
76	H 8	Substitute goods	0	8	0.09	0	0.00
77	H 2	Scarcity and plenty	0	7	0.08	0	0.00
78	H 4	Population—demand	0	5	0.05	0	0.00
79	A	Science of economics	0	3	0.03	0	0.00
80	I 4	Seasonal production	0	1	0.01	0	0.00
81	C 3	Anarchism	0	0	0.00	0	0.00
Totals			4173	9247	100.02	2,308,066	100.00

* In this and the following table the column headings mean as follows: "O" is the rank order of the topic based on the number of words except in cases where there were no articles on the topic but were references to it. In those cases the order is that of the references. "A" is the number of articles whose main topic is the topic given. "R" is the number of references to the topic in articles about another topic (counting a reference to a particular topic but once per article) plus the number in the "A" column for the topic. "%R" is the per cent that the number of references to the given topic is to the total number of references. "Words" is the estimated number of words, to the nearest word, in the articles whose main topic is the given topic. "%W" is the per cent that the number of words for the topic is of the total number of words for all topics.

The correlation of distributions %R and %W from this table is .859 \pm .196.

TABLE III
THE COMPARATIVE EMPHASIS OF THE GROUPS OF TOPICS IN ALL THE PUBLICATIONS STUDIED;
ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER OF WORDS

O	Key	Group	A	R	%R	Words	%W
1	J	Particular businesses	1642	2221	24.03	940,581	40.75
2	O	Public economy	737	1603	17.32	459,623	19.92
3	B	Our economic order	521	1130	12.22	303,296	13.14
4	E	The market for goods	334	1206	13.05	114,399	4.96
5	N	The labor market	160	616	6.68	93,408	4.03
6	C	Other economic orders	69	119	1.29	70,998	3.08
7	H	Demand on the market	60	413	4.48	57,034	2.47
8	G	Money and exchange	118	404	4.36	54,265	2.36
9	I	Production	84	250	2.71	51,593	2.23
10	L	The capital market	104	486	5.26	46,696	2.02
11	F	Foreign trade	62	308	3.32	45,434	1.97
12	M	Risk-taking market	245	367	3.97	34,590	1.50
13	D	Proposed reforms	25	67	0.72	28,654	1.24
14	K	The rentable agents market	12	54	0.58	7,495	0.33
15	A	Economics (nature, etc.)	0	3	0.03	0	0.00
Totals			4173	9247	100.02	2,308,066	100.00

The correlation of distributions %R and %W from this table is .914 \pm .285.

of various veterans' associations and the "bonus army" that inflation as a substitute for taxation was so little discussed.

The problem of women and children in industry was mentioned but nine times. Perhaps the economic and social adjustments involved have been largely completed. An understanding of the cooperative movement seems now to have little relative importance for the understanding of magazines and newspapers.

In planning an economics course of study it would probably be well to bear in mind that for purposes of developing a better understanding of the economic materials that they read the students need most to understand, according to the results of this study, the business cycle (business conditions), the stock, bond and commodity markets, government or public economy, socialism, and government regulation of industry.

The ranking of groups of topics, which might be used as units in an economics course, may also be of interest. Particular businesses, public economy, our economic order, and the market for goods are the groups of topics of which an understanding would seem to be most important for an under-

standing of economic articles in newspapers and magazines.

It is possible to determine what topics were combined in each group by comparing the key letters of Table 2 with those of Table 3.

This is only one of a number of objective studies which would be useful as a basis for the course of study in economics. Moreover this study should be checked by other similar studies over different periods of time and with different publications. In the final construction of the course of study the available objective information must, of course, be subjectively analyzed and evaluated.

¹ Harap, Henry, *The education of the consumer; a study in curriculum material*, MacMillan, 1924.

² Hess, George O., *Economics in the press*, Thesis (M.A.) State University of Iowa, 1932.

³ Finley, C. W., and Caldwell, O. W., *Biology in the public press*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923.

⁴ Grimes, A. B., *The sociology of newspapers*, Thesis (M.A.) State University of Iowa, 1931.

⁵ Gambrill, J. M., "Experimental Curriculum Making in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, 14: 391-397.

⁶ This and the following circulation figures are Audit Bureau of Circulation's figures quoted in the *American Newspaper Annual and Directory*, N. W. Ayer and Son, 1929.

Study Helps in History

By JOSEPH RAGUSA AND M. GRUBRICK
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I. Paste these instructions in your History notebook. Read them carefully and refer to them OFTEN.

II. NOTEBOOKS:—Provide yourself with a History notebook. Keep all your notes, reports, etc., in this book. Paste into this book any mimeographed notes you may get during the term. It is most convenient to have a special notebook for History. (Looseleaf or regular.)

III. ASSIGNMENTS:—There is an assignment for every day. Get a small notebook for all assignments. Be sure you copy not only the pages BUT ALSO the QUESTIONS.

IV. METHOD OF STUDY.—Spend about 45 minutes on your History homework. Get into the habit of doing this work right from the start. Form a time and place habit for study. Don't dawdle over your work. Do your own work and use your own judgment. Ask for help only when you must have it. Be sure you know what the assignment is. If you do not understand what it is, ask questions. In committing material to memory, learn it as a whole, go over it quickly first, then more carefully, and then again and again until you have it. In studying material to be understood and digested

but not memorized, go over the whole lesson quickly. Then, read the first assignment question or topic. Try to formulate an answer for this topic or question. If you can repeat the material in your own words, continue with the next topic or question. If not, repeat the process. Use judgment as well as memory. Analyze each paragraph to select important points. Note these points to aid you in making a rapid review. Learn to concentrate; avoid distractions. Use all material aids:—index, appendix, notes, vocabulary (using dictionary for unfamiliar words), maps, illustrations in your text, as well as other books and periodicals.

V. MAKE-UP WORK:—Make up all absences by writing a summary of the assignment you missed and by reciting on it to the teacher in the A.M. or P.M. prefect period. All absences are regarded as failures unless you make up the work.

VI. TEXTBOOKS:—Your History book MUST BE COVERED AT ALL TIMES. It is unnecessary to bring them to class except every second Monday for inspection or whenever your teacher asks for it. Under no circumstances are you to mark them in any way. It is a good idea to bring your book to class every day if it is not too inconvenient.

VII. PUNCTUALITY:—You must be in your seat when the second bell rings. *All* latecomers will be sent to the office for a pass.

VIII. METHOD OF RECITATION:—Stand in the aisle. Face the majority of the class. Frame your first sentence so that anyone can tell what the question was. Answer in complete sentences. Speak so that all in the class can hear without difficulty. *Above all* do not speak out of turn.

IX. GOOD ENGLISH:—You are urged to be careful in the use of English. Good English (correct grammar, spelling and punctuation) are necessary elements in all recitations. You will be penalized for poor English in all written work.

X. TESTS:—There will be at least one short test each week. These tests will be considered very important in determining the mark. The mid-term mark is very important in determining the mark of the second marking period, particularly in History 4 and 6. Students in non-Regents classes must not be absent from final examinations if they are not exempted. Absence from such finals will mean *failure*, for the term.

XI. MARKS:—If you think you deserve a very high mark, you must be prepared to do extra work in the form of special reports, etc. Opportunities

for special work will be presented by the teacher.

XII. READINGS:—You must prepare 100 pages of readings in History 4 and 5, and 150 pages in History 6 and 7. You ought to do at least 20 pages each week so that you can profit from your reading. Each student must be prepared to give an oral report at least once a term. This must be given from memory. You must make note of: (1) name of author and book; (2) the title of the chapter or chapters you read and the pages—(e.g., p. 2-31). Keep these notes in your notebook. Topics and speakers will be announced each week.

XIII. CURRENT EVENTS:—It is important to pay close attention to current events, particularly in the Regents classes. Read a newspaper daily. Get the habit of reading at least one weekly magazine on current events. Bring up these problems in class, especially when they pertain to the topic under discussion. To debate or argue without facts is futile. Therefore, *get the facts* before you try to argue. The text must be mastered thoroughly, but, since no text is complete or entirely accurate, learn to *consult other sources*.

XIV. *Under no circumstances will marks be raised at the end of the term. You need at least 75 per cent to enter college and to take five majors.*

Questions on Presidential Nominations and Elections

With Emphasis on 1932

By CARL H. TIBBITTS

High School, White Plains, New York

NOTE: The purpose of these questions is not to further the interest of either party or set of candidates. The purpose is rather to explain the mechanism of nominations, campaigns and elections. You will have to judge for yourself as to how to vote. I have no right or wish to advise.

1. Why is it easy to remember in what year presidential elections occur?
2. Name the last six presidents in order and give the party of each.
3. In what month are the nominating conventions held?
4. In what city was the Democratic convention held this year?
5. In what city was the Republican convention held this year?
6. Which was held first?
7. Some one said—"Standing room was more in demand at the Democratic convention than box seats at the Republican convention." What do you suppose was the point?
8. What article and sections (if any) in the Constitution explain in detail the rules for a nominating convention?
9. How were candidates usually nominated before the convention system?
10. When was the change to the convention made?
11. Why do cities bid for nominating conventions?
12. How is the number of delegates from a state determined?
13. How many does New York State have?
14. About what is the total number of delegates?
15. How are the delegates chosen?
16. How many votes are necessary to nominate in the Republican Convention.
17. How many in the Democratic convention?
18. What change did the Roosevelt supporters try to make in the Democratic system? Why?
19. What man calls the convention to order?
20. Who makes the first important speech?
21. Why is it called the "key note" speech?
22. Why is the Resolutions Committee important?

23. What are meant by "planks"?
24. What was the Democratic plank on Prohibition?
25. What was the Republican plank on Prohibition?
26. Which plank is the wetter? Justify your decision.
27. What is Roosevelt's attitude toward his party's Prohibition plank?
28. What is Hoover's attitude toward the Republican plank?
29. Who was the Permanent Chairman of the Democratic Convention?
30. What Democratic convention balloted over one hundred times before it succeeded in nominating a candidate?
31. On what ballot was Hoover nominated?
32. Who were his chief opponents?
33. On what ballot was Roosevelt nominated?
34. Who were his chief opponents?
35. What is a "dark horse"?
36. Mention two dark horses in American History.
37. Were Roosevelt or Hoover dark horses? Explain.
38. Who are the two nominees for vice president?
39. What office does each hold?
40. What unusual thing did Roosevelt do when he learned of his nomination?
41. What really brought about Roosevelt's nomination after he had not had enough votes on the first few ballots?
42. Adams and Clay in 1824? Roosevelt and Garner in 1932. How?
43. Some people think Roosevelt is a Republican. Why?
44. What new campaign method of appealing to the public has appeared in the last fifteen years?
45. For what legitimate purposes do the parties need money?
46. How may the depression handicap both campaigns?
47. If you were a Democratic campaign speaker what use would you make of the present depression?
48. If you were a Republican speaker what answer would you give?
49. How is the National Committee of each party made up?
50. Name the chairman for each party's committee.
51. Mention three facts about Hoover's previous career.
52. Mention three facts about Roosevelt's previous career.
53. Who officially opened the Olympic games?
54. Why was it not strange that he gave his ticket to Jim Thorpe, the ex-athlete?
55. In what day of November will the election take place? Why?
56. How is the number of electors from a state determined?
57. What is the smallest number a state could have?
58. How many does the state of New York have?
59. How many electoral votes are necessary to elect?
60. Could a candidate have an electoral minority and still have a popular majority? Why or why not?
61. The Electoral College meets in January and the results are known in February. What a long time to wait to see who will be president! Explain.
62. Of what use is the Electoral College?
63. What sort of deadlock occurred in 1800? How has Twelfth Amendment prevented a like situation?
64. Why did the election of 1824 go to the House of Representatives?
65. Why were similar deadlocks feared in 1912 and in 1924?
66. The Hayes-Tilden election was not finally settled until March 2, 1877. Why?
67. By what method was this election finally decided?
68. When will the new president be inaugurated?
69. What is the "Solid South"?
70. Who broke it temporarily? When?
71. One man said—"If Hoover is elected, four months after his inauguration every bank in the country will be closed!" Another man said the same about Roosevelt. What do you think?
72. The administration of the president to take office in 1937 will probably be 43 days shorter than administrations in the past. Why?
73. What is the object of this change?
74. Mention 2 occasions in American History when such a change would have been desirable?
75. Show how the president can influence (a) the executive department, (b) the legislative department, (c) the judicial department, (d) public opinion.
76. Prove that our method of electing a president is or is not democratic.
77. What are the powers and duties of the president?
78. Explain carefully the difference between the position of the president and that of the English prime minister.
79. Did I omit any questions I should have asked?

John C. Moore's impressions of a month in Spain, appear in the September number of the *Fortnightly Review*. "The truth about conditions under the Republic is really neither particularly alarming nor particularly cheerful. Spain is sharing in the world's sickness and suffering perhaps in a greater degree than England but in a lesser degree than Germany. She makes no provision for her unemployed. Therefore the unemployed go hungry; and hungry men are always dangerous. . . . Discontent demands a change but not a return to dictatorship or a king. . . . Moderate opinion everywhere supports the present regime and has no desire for a change. . . . Yet among the lower-classes there is a dangerously large, and a growing Communistic element which clamorously demands that Spain shall go the whole hog and achieve a Soviet. . . . For my own part, I believe that the next change will be towards the left; and that if Spain ever goes back to the Monarchy it will be (paradoxically) by way of Communism and the chaos which demands a remedy which is both spectacular and sudden."

An Experiment in Homogeneous Grouping in Modern European History

By HAZEL TAYLOR

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THE PROBLEM

The germ of that disease called "teaching the individual child instead of the hypothetical average one" found lodgment in the history department of the Simon Gratz High School in Philadelphia. The individual had a way of getting lost in the crowd even though we were using the Morrison Unit Plan with all the opportunities it offers for adjusting the work to different grades of ability. We decided to try an experiment in homogeneous grouping as a means toward clarifying our own thought on the subject.

The first step was to collect and read all the available literature on the subject. We found this rich in lists of characteristics of the bright child and of the dull child and in programs for enriching the curriculum for the superior student, but it was sadly inadequate in suggestions for classroom procedure in a group of either kind. We were forced to work that out for ourselves as will be told later in this paper.

The next step, of course, was to locate the children who would best qualify for each group. Since we had no way of exact measurement we based the selection solely on recommendation of the previous teacher. In this way we formed two groups of about thirty-seven each, one of the ablest students and one of the slowest, from approximately five hundred children in the 10 B grade. Their work during the term showed that in most cases the choice was well made. The work covered was the modern period in European history from the Congress of Vienna to the present.

Later we were able to test part of the superior group by means of the Terman Group Test. But as the test was given by novices and the I.Q.'s were computed by the same, there was a large chance for inaccuracy. Even with due allowance for error, however, the scores were disappointing. In order to make up a sufficient number for the rapid group in the first place, it had been necessary to include some children who were merely good and industrious. It is not surprising that these formed the struggling section, for their I.Q.'s were very low, seven of them falling below 100 and one even going as low as 84. The leaders, of course, were much higher, ranging from 108 to 123. About half of the class were above median for the grade but

the Manual of Direction states that the norm, as given, is probably too high for the country at large. The fact remains that the performance of the group was so far above average for the grade and school that there is no doubt about their superiority to the colleagues. Unfortunately we were unable to test the lower group, but since their obvious ability fell so far short of that of the others one can assume that their I.Q.'s were so low as to be disquieting.

We tried to keep the plan a complete secret from the children and, so far as I know, no one in the slow group ever suspected anything unusual, but the rapid group had not even assembled for the first lesson before one boy came to me demanding to know why it was that nearly everybody in the room had had "E" in history the term before. I tried to dodge the issue by telling him that we were trying a little experiment and that they were the "guinea pigs." He was silenced rather than satisfied, however, and I felt that the subject was often discussed afterward.

It was a department project. I, as the teacher of both classes, acted as the agent of the others, using suggestions from them and reporting back results to them.

It seemed advisable to get as much information about the children outside the class room as well as in. Therefore we asked the coöperation of the school nurse in regard to their health. The reports that were returned proved nothing for defects were scattered rather evenly over both groups. Poor vision, bad teeth and underweight appeared on the card of bright child and dull child alike. Next we used the office records. We had been prepared by our reading to find that the bright child came from a home of superior economic standing. We found, however, that if there was any advantage in his favor it was so small as to be negligible and there were many exceptions. One of the brightest little girls was the daughter of a fruit and vegetable huckster and one selected for the next bright class is the daughter of the school elevator operator. Children from both groups were prominent in athletics or held monitorial positions in the Students' Association. They were too young for the more important positions. Both groups had members who belonged to outside organizations, often

as an office holder. All that the investigation served was merely to show that there was more similarity than difference. It would be futile, of course, to generalize with so small a number, especially since they all lived in one community with small economic range and reasonably similar standards of living.

The other outside investigations, however, proved to be more illuminating. That was in the matter of age. Here we found that the slower group was, on the whole, older than the others by six months to a year. They were fifteen or nearly sixteen, with one boy almost eighteen years of age, while the rapid group were fourteen or barely fifteen. This tells its own story of previous struggles in the slow group, which, if continued, will probably result in their dropping out of school before graduation.

The following general characteristics of the two groups are based on my impressions of them as I observed them day after day during the term. They follow closely those listed in the literature on the subject.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SLOW GROUP

The slow group brought into the room a general air of depression. They walked quietly and slowly to their seats, having little to say to each other and almost nothing to me. Calling the class to order was a mere formality for they were already in perfect order before the chairman said a word. This lack of exuberance characterized all their actions. Even their voices were dull and in many cases almost too weak to be heard over the room. Nothing short of a motor accident in the street outside or a flight of the Graf Zeppelin was enough to arouse them from their apathy.

In general they lacked assurance, a quality that probably thrives best on success. They were never sure they were right until I told them so, and one little girl did all her talking with her eyes constantly on my face to catch any change of expression. They required unlimited encouragement for a recitation and a trip to the wall map was a real excursion. Undoubtedly these children had always been a submerged group and their lack of confidence came naturally from repeated small defeats.

They were docile and obedient in the extreme. There was no disciplinary problem. This seemed to be the result, not so much of superior self control, as of rather neutral personalities with no urge for self expression. They were content to be led and they never seemed to question the leader nor her methods.

They were more fond of pictures and stories than of discussion. This was probably the outcome

of their thinking which was concrete rather than abstract.

At first it seemed that not even a spark of humor lay behind their lethargy. I was wrong. It was there, but of an obvious, not a subtle variety. The following is an example. We had been talking of elephants when I noticed that a wave of giggling was spreading over the back row. They were too convulsed with laughter to tell me about it at first but I finally learned that one of the boys had started them off with this comment, "They ride on elephants so they can carry their clothes in his trunk." If I had known them outside I might have learned more of this side of their personalities but the class room offered little opportunity for the jokes that appealed to them.

Lip stick and other forms of make-up were much in evidence. Louis Phillipe excited interest, not because of any historical fact connected with him, but solely because of a lip stick bearing his name. One was immediately produced to prove it to me.

They had much social activity outside school. Movies attracted them several times a week and they had club and sorority membership as has been noted above. Their outside social activity was totally at variance with their lack of color and interest as they appeared in the class room. They probably came to life at 2:30 in the afternoon.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAST GROUP

If the slow class was depressing the rapid one was exhilarating—and noisy. They fairly tumbled into the room all talking at once to each other and to me. Life was thrilling and half the fun lay in telling some one else about it. It was a real struggle to quell the tumult into anything like ordered activity. It was not so much a group to be handled as it was thirty-seven vibrant, clear-cut personalities to be directed.

They were quick in action as well as in thought. They walked quickly and they could find the place in a book or a city on the map with no waste of time. Along with this went impatience. If the librarian was slow about giving out books he would find himself surrounded by several self-appointed assistants and the work was done.

I found them able to concentrate deeply and for long periods. After the first tumult of entrance had subsided a hush would descend upon the room. It was evidence of their real interest in learning and their ability to lose themselves in its pursuit. During these periods they were sweetly but quite distinctly annoyed at interruption so that I found it impracticable to help those who needed further direction. This was a decided disadvantage that I was never able to overcome.

There was little lack of confidence. Years of successful accomplishment lay behind them. They were sure of being right without the approval of the teacher and often in spite of her disapproval, ready to prove a point from a book at a moment's notice.

Active questioning, of statements, opinions, procedure, was an outstanding characteristic. Little went by unchallenged. It was all done in the friendliest fashion, but it was perfectly obvious that not even "dear teacher" was on a pedestal. If I could hold my own on a level with them, I got due credit for it, but never for one moment was I an infallible fount of wisdom. They criticized their own work as well as that of others and were often not satisfied when I considered the performance quite superior.

As part of this critical attitude they were quick to recognize and to applaud excellence in others. One boy who had had little, if any, competition before looked at me in despair after a particularly good talk by one of the girls and said, "How can I talk after that?"

Their ability to do abstract thinking led them into many discussions. "Is Anarchism Feasible?", "Was it good for the far East to adopt Western ideas?", "After all, what do we mean by civilization?" were questions seized upon with avidity and discussed with enthusiasm.

Their power of initiative was well illustrated by an incident that happened early in the term. After a particularly long assembly there was uncertainty about which period would follow. By the time I reached the room I found the chairman giving directions to our class and to others with perfect assurance because he had already telephoned the office for exact information.

One thing that delighted me particularly was their charming sense of humor. It was neither loud nor crude but they found keen enjoyment in the endless little funny situations that arise in a class room. A boy secretary enlivened the class minutes with comments that were amusing but never beyond the bounds of good taste. At the end of his term he was unanimously re-elected over his protests and mine, "Just as a mark of appreciation," said one of the class. A slip of any sort seldom went unnoticed, but the laughter was so gay and friendly that I was never conscious of any hurt feelings because of it.

In general the slow group was slow, in action, thinking and in emotional response. Their indifference or lethargy led them to accept passively whatever was offered. The rapid people, on the contrary, were quick to think, to act and to question. They were vivid, individual and brimming over with vitality. Their critical attitude may not

always be comfortable but it will at least be interesting. They seemed to find life much more of a gay adventure than their slower colleagues. The teacher felt lifted from the quiet waters of a shallow stream and plunged into the tempestuous rush of a mountain torrent with cross currents and unexpected eddies. There was no question about which was more soothing, but none either about which was more stimulating and entertaining.

CLASS ROOM PROCEDURE

In the matter of class room procedure we tried to adapt the work to their characteristics and abilities. In both we used a modification of the Morrison Unit Plan.

While we used fairly large units of work even in the slower group, I made short day by day assignments within the unit so as to accommodate it to their shorter memory and interest span. We used a textbook written in simple language with considerable illustrative material. I began each unit with a presentation which I made as concrete and pictorial as possible. Then I gave a short test to check up on their understanding. The next step consisted of daily assignments in the textbook with the class period used for recitation. I found them unable to develop a topic of any length but they could answer short definite questions. Toward the end of the term some of them improved quite noticeably and were able to give much longer recitations, sometimes a résumé of the whole lesson, due, no doubt, to increased confidence which came with lack of successful competition. It was during this stage of the work that I found the most opportunity for helping them to visualize situations and events. They were delighted with the British Commonwealth of Nations described in terms of camels and palm trees or of jewel decked princes riding on elephants. They could appreciate the westernization of the far East when reduced to the simplicity of a change from picturesque oriental costumes to the drab ones of the western world. They appeared to have no interest in any less superficial view.

When the material in the textbook had been covered I gave them specially prepared assignment sheets with simple exercises to serve as a review of the subject. In these I made use of as much hand work as possible and then worked with them step by step. Sometimes it was simply, "Mark with X the countries where revolutions occurred between 1815 and 1848." When the exercise was a map we began by coloring in the water first. This was more difficult than it sounds and it took considerable patience to keep Asia Minor from becoming an inland sea or the Baltic from turning into dry land. These exercises were made into a

notebook which I required them to hand in to me.

The next step was a test consisting mostly of objective questions mimeographed. Toward the end of the term I added a few simple sequences to the matching and completion sections. They were able to do quite well with these but found great difficulty in treating at all adequately the simplest question in essay form. They were satisfied with three or four sentences with no attempt at organization.

In the beginning we made no sharp difference in the general plan of teaching the bright group. Their work followed the same steps as were used for the others but was approached differently. For instance, in the presentation, I required them to help as much as possible. Many of them had read enough to know something about the work, especially as we approached the present. In presenting the topic of the Great War I merely combined and organized the information they gave me. They used a more difficult textbook and I spent most of the daily recitation in teaching them to organize the material for the day. They were able to develop long topics, so questions were used only to bring out omitted points.

They were given mimeographed assignment sheets but were not required to hand in notebooks. I suggested that they use the exercises merely as a guide.

Their objective tests were the ones used for the medium classes but I gave them difficult essay questions which I expected them to develop quite fully. On the unit of Russia I asked, "How is Post-War Russia and Outgrowth of Pre-War Russia"? At the end of the Great War I used this, "Compare the Outlook for Peace Today With That Before 1914." The results in most cases were thoughtful considerations of the subject.

When we reached the comparatively easy topic of the Unification of Italy, I discarded the daily recitation and threw them on their own responsibility after the presentation with the assignment sheet as a guide. Right here I encountered opposition. Most of them had been accustomed to making "E" in history without much effort on their part. One boy told me that he had never found it necessary to open a book. The recitation had provided him with ample opportunity for learning enough to lead his class. Now that that prop was removed and he found that a distinct effort was required from him, he threw the blame where it quite properly belonged—on the teacher. He was quite outspoken in his criticism of my apparent indolence and he seemed to be voicing the general attitude of the class. I struggled to explain the value of independent effort but I always had the uneasy feel-

ing after that that they thought I was merely taking the path of least resistance.

During this period of assimilation they were allowed to study their texts at home or in school, read other texts which we had in the room or go to the school library for more extensive accounts. Sometimes half the class would be in the library. In that case I generally spent part of my time there helping them to find material or guiding them in their selection.

At the end of each unit we had a series of summing up talks that organized the material they had been gathering. These were in all cases well organized and well given but the most interesting part was the discussion which almost invariably followed a talk. The speaker found himself forced to explain or defend his statements with the result that they were afraid to make careless or inaccurate assertions. Here lay one of the chief values of a group of similar ability. Each was put on his mettle to appear well before the bar of intelligent public opinion. There was no bluffing the group. A little girl who gave her term paper on the subject of Anarchism and talked rather aimlessly and uncomprehendingly about it found herself fairly bombarded with questions which she was utterly unable to answer. It was an excellent lesson for her.

One of the most noticeable characteristics of the bright child is his eagerness to learn and his willingness to study. I found this to be true in most of the group I had. They knew they could "get by" with a short outside reading talk on each unit but about a third of the class chose to prepare a term topic instead. This was evidence of their power of sustained interest in a subject. They worked on them as they had time during the assimilation period and outside school and presented them orally to the class at the end of the term in time that I allowed for the purpose.

Each child chose the subject that he found the most interesting. They usually talked the topics over with me and I might offer suggestions as to scope and material but there was no compulsion about choice. An Italian boy chose Mussolini. A boy whose people were Russian decided to study the Soviet system, partly because he could get primary material from his uncle who lived there. The rest of the class decided that the uncle's opinion might be biased in favor of the present system for he holds a judgeship now, whereas formerly he had not had so high a position. Unfortunately the boy's illness prevented his completion of the topic. There was one on Livingstone's travels in Africa, one on Socialism and one on the remote causes of the Great War. The most outstanding one of all was that given by a fourteen year old boy on "The Diplomatic Background of the Great War." He had

read the classics of the period, Fay, Schmitt, Seymour and Davis. His talk lasted well over a period and it gave the intricate international relations from 1870 to the outbreak of the war. His style was easy and his vocabulary included such expressions as "center our attention on the Balkans," "distinctly hostile" and "no direct official communication between governments." He showed a comprehension of a difficult subject that would have done credit to a college senior, but the boy himself was quite chagrined because he had said "1914" once when he had meant "1870." The appreciation of the class for a good piece of work was almost as gratifying as the talk itself.

CRITICISM OF THE PLAN

In spite of the criticism that has been heaped upon the plan of homogeneous grouping, I feel that this one has been distinctly valuable. In answer to the charge that it is undemocratic, it seems to me that it is only fair to give each child the best possible environment for developing his own peculiar set of abilities, and I think the grouping did just that. The slow child found himself with others of similar ability where his own slowness was not too much of a handicap. Pupils who had never before had any opportunity to win approval found themselves emerging as leaders. Since they never guessed that they were in any way segregated there was no feeling of inferiority. On the other hand, the bright child found himself among his intellectual peers where he was challenged to exert

his best powers to keep up. He had less inclination than before to feel superior because he found so many others of similar calibre.

It is sometimes said that the brighter students are an inspiration to their slower colleagues in an undifferentiated group. I would say that this is true only where the difference is not too great. The child who is only a step or two ahead makes a better leader than the one who is so far ahead as to be out of sight. Besides even in a so-called homogeneous group there is a fairly wide range of ability, so that the leaders in each group act as a spur to the others.

In addition to the value of the experiment to the children, it has been a revelation to the teachers. It has taught us what characteristics and abilities we may expect to find on different levels so that we may deal more effectively with individuals in the undifferentiated classes.

Perhaps the most interesting and valuable part of the experiment is yet to come for we have sent the bright class on with a different teacher. We weeded out some of the slowest and added others who had not been available before so that the new group should surpass the first one. If possible they are to continue as a unit through the rest of their high school career and those of us who have had them will follow with keen interest their further development. I hope to see them contributing something of outstanding worth to their generation and be able to feel that the Simon Gratz faculty has had a small part in their success.

Adventuring with the Functional Unit

By A. C. ROSANDER
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THE UNIT METHOD

At a time when the unit method is receiving so much attention from classroom teachers and professional educators generally, it behooves one who would become oriented with respect to this method to inquire into its theory and its practice. In order to discover just what the basic principles are which underlie this method let us turn to those who have given the unit its present form and meaning. No doubt Morrison and Miller have made the greatest contributions to our understanding of the unit. As might be expected these two men agree upon some points and differ with regard to others. Both would oppose the storage concept of education, the rigid and stifling teaching method, the teacher as a purveyor of knowledge, the student as a passive recipient of academic or doctrinated information, the ideas of ground-to-be-covered, of time-to-be-spent, of lessons-to-be-learned. Constructively both would substitute learning units for lessons, thinking for memorizing, understanding for

knowledge, definite goals for uncertain results, directed study for answer reciting, student participation for student passivity, teacher guidance for teacher paternalism. The learning unit, then, is but one outgrowth of the revolt against the stereotyped lesson procedure. To accept the learning unit with all its implications will call for a complete reconstruction of our thinking with regard to both learning and teaching.

MEANING OF THE UNIT

Let us look into the meaning of the unit in more detail. According to Morrison a unit "must be a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, or of an organized science, capable of being understood rather than capable merely of being remembered."¹ A unit in history consists "of the larger significant movements in human history which go far to explain the society in which he lives, and which develop in him a reasoning attitude toward the social world of today, in the place of an attitude of passive accep-

tance."² Examples of such units are: Weather and Climate, Force and Motion, Liberty and Law, The Enforcement of Law, The Industrial Revolution. The challenge, which is Miller's term for the learning unit, is "any body of materials or principles presented as a basis of study for a class group," and which is to be substituted for lesson, project, problem, or topic methods.³ Again, "the larger unit of learning (comprehensive, unified, and significant) has been substituted in our thesis for the uniform lesson assignment with its accumulated mass of formalism in terms of methodology."⁴ More detailed, "families of words furnish excellent examples of comprehensive units of learning which may become creative challenges for pupils."⁵ Examples of such challenges are the following: automobile, irregular verbs, prohibition, the moving wheel, the Platanet world, the parallelogram.

One must keep in mind that the method of teaching is quite distinct from the method of organizing experimental materials under the unit system, although the unit method carries with it certain teaching implications, as has been already stated. In order to develop in the student an understanding of the unit, of little or no importance. Setting up units as The Morrison would use five separate and successive teaching steps as follows: exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation.⁶ On the other hand Miller would not follow so rigid and systematic a method although he seems favorable to some such procedure as the following: the problem-raising movement, the directed study movement, and the organizing and unifying movement.⁷ That this is similar in general principle to the Morrison technique can readily be seen. Nevertheless Miller would look with some suspicion upon the two steps of preparation and presentation because they tend to deprive the student of the self-discovery and the self-mastery which he needs to experience and develop, and which are the basis of all true education.⁸

SIZE OF LEARNING UNITS

With regard to the size of the learning units Morrison thinks that the significant aspects of the environment with which men come in contact are relatively small in number. From about seven to fifteen seem to be adequate for the secondary school level, more being required for the lower levels than for the higher ones.⁹ While Miller suggests that a unit may require from four to six weeks, he thinks it quite conceivable to have a genuine unit which may take only one day.¹⁰ This implies a much broader interpretation of the learning unit for teaching purposes. While Morrison thinks of mastery on only one level Miller divides it into three progressive levels. The Morrison plan calls for teaching, testing, and reteaching until satisfactory understanding is registered by each student. There must be complete mastery before the stage of assimilation is considered at an end, complete mastery as shown by perfect performance on the assimilation test.¹¹ Individual differences in rates of progress are taken care of by supplementary exercises during the period of assimilation. To Miller mastery

is more relative and progressive and less standardized; hence the three levels of achievement with no upper limit for any one. Mastery of the unit or challenge consists of excellent performance within each of the gradations, the standard for judging excellence being determined by the teacher.¹² A unit is not organized subject to be transferred from book or lecture or laboratory to the receptive minds of the students; it is not a glorified lesson, it is not a finished product.¹³ Miller would oppose anything which might lead to educational paternalism. Self-realization is the guiding principle. Understandings are to come through creative thinking—through discovery of relationships and meanings rather than being told these by the teacher. In reality the student is to build his own unit within socialized learning situations along differentials or guide lines but always unified by the core idea or integrating principle. Miller would look with disfavor upon mimeographed directions, or guide sheets which might be subject-matter to be learned or which acted not as a chart or a compass but as a job sheet describing in detail everything that the student should do. To both Morrison and Miller the learning unit is not subject-matter to be memorized, not activities to be performed, not work to be completed, not tasks to be done. Rather it is a challenge which can be brought to bear on present living and make it more meaningful to every individual; activities are not to be performed for their own sake but are to represent experiences which can be organized and unified into an understandable whole; the mind is to be set free to work ahead within organizing principles. The challenge to us then is clear. For a jumble of information must be substituted unified understandings, for completed achievement continued mastery, for mental dependence intellectual initiative, for teacher paternalism student freedom within the law, for blind followership of teacher directions an individuality capable of meeting new situations intelligently.

UNIT IN THE CLASSROOM

The next step is to study the unit in the classroom. A number of unit organizations has been selected in order to illustrate how they are expressed and arranged. The examples are from courses organized according to the Morrison idea:

*Wilson's units of American history*¹⁴

1. The Background of American History
2. Colonizing the Continent
3. Forming the American Nation
4. Establishing an Independent State
5. The Era of National Expansion
6. The Slavery Controversy
7. Reconstruction
8. A Second Industrial Revolution
9. United States—A World Power
10. The World War and Reconstruction

*Bailey's units of American history*¹⁵

1. Setting the Stage for Columbus
2. Expansion of the Old World into the New
3. The Struggle for a Continent
4. The New World breaks away from the Old
5. Making the Constitution
6. Testing the Constitution

7. Pushing back the Frontier
8. The Industrializing of American Life

*Tryon and Lingley's units of American history*¹⁶

1. Discovery, exploration, and conquest
2. The founding of the colonies and the struggle for supremacy in North America, 1607-1763
3. Colonial life about 1763
4. The Revolution and the establishment of the American Nation, 1763-1789
5. Nationalism and Democracy, 1789-1829
6. Expansion and Conflict, 1829-1865
7. Rebuilding the Union, 1865-1900
8. America in our fathers' time and in our own

*Barnard's units of a Survey of Civilization*¹⁷

1. Primitive life and Oriental civilization
2. Greece—a world enlightened
3. Rome—a world consolidated
4. The Middle Ages—transition to modern civilization
5. The Crusading Movement
6. Beginnings of the modern world—the expansion of commerce and the great awakening
7. Colonial expansion and the New World

*Hill's units of Modern History*¹⁸

1. The Industrial Revolution
2. The French Revolution
3. The Era of Metternich
4. The development of nationality
5. The slavery controversy
6. The westward movement
7. Expansion of the industrial nations
8. The World War and world reconstruction

An examination of these units seems to indicate nothing more revolutionary than a shift of emphasis. In its broad outlines the aim and content and organization of traditional history remain. The units, for the most part, are divisions of subject-matter which are often found in history texts and which have been used by some teachers under the daily recitation procedure. These units, let it be said, represent traditional history pruned of irrelevant episodic material, focused upon a few great periods and movements, and concentrated upon more clear-cut understandings. In the main they represent more systematic history teaching, aimed to do better, that which the recitation method attempted and so often failed to do. There is no suggestion, however, that continuous social thinking is necessary. The units are too apt to begin in the past and end there, thus leaving the thinking of the student divorced from the present. They suggest too strongly that social problems are solved, that the great movements are ended, that present social trends are of little or no importance. Setting up units such as The Era of Expansion conveys the idea that expansion is a movement of the past whereas one of the significant trends of recent times has been American industrial expansion into other parts of the world. Expansion westward now needs to be reversed in the light of Ford's interests in Russia, the General Motors' holdings in Germany, the Firestone rubber plantations in Africa. Similarly to convey the idea that nationalism and democracy and internal conflict are problems definitely settled in decades of the past is simply to give students the wrong impression of the nature of past and present social change. These static units are bound to get out of adjustment with the facts in a changing moving world such as we inhabit.

UNIT IDEA VS. SUBJECT-MATTER

We need to save the unit idea from becoming the old formal subject-matter method under a different name. Too often the unit idea as worked out in practice has led to a mere division of the textbook into eight or ten or twelve parts. We have thought of subject-matter as an end, not as a means to gain understandings. That is why we have been so content to teach anything, thinking that subject-matter was just good in itself. The difficulty arises, it would seem, because the organization of a field of knowledge is static, whereas thinking in this world is necessarily dynamic. This is the reason why the divisions of books are not always the best statements of learning units. Too often this use of textbook divisions has led teachers to think that they had the substance of the unit idea when they had only the appearance of it. The unit idea definitely repudiates the notion of subject-matter-to-be-covered, and substitutes in its place units of understanding, using reading matter as assimilative material with which to reach the objective of the unit. But always there is the danger that the teacher will slip back into the recitation method in spirit if not in actual practice. How are we going to prevent the unit from becoming formalized and inert? One way out is to interpret the unit in more challenging terms which take into consideration present social realities. We need to emphasize not just understandings of the past, but understandings which enlarge our view of the present and our vision of the future. In order to accomplish this the static, aimless, isolated, academic unit must go. In its place we might try a functional unit, one which is not only comprehensive, understandable, and integrated but dynamic, directive, and developmental as well.

THE FUNCTIONAL UNIT

The functional unit if it would serve completely and efficiently in promoting the understanding which present social intelligence requires would be conceived of in terms of the following criteria: (1) It must be socially valid; (2) It must be historically developmental; (3) It must be culturally dynamic; (4) It must be mentally directive.

In order to be socially valid a unit must lead to an understanding which is helpful in meeting the problems of present group living; it must deal with problems which must be met, with forces which must be controlled, with conditions which must be faced here and now. A socially valid unit brings the student face to face with present realities of associative living whether they are those of the large group or those of the small group.

A unit ought to be amenable to the genetic or historical approach. We ought to be able to conceive of it in terms of backgrounds, of foundations, of development. In order to evaluate accurately social institutions, and group more of the present we must know why they started and how they developed. This helps to give to our thinking the proper perspective. It helps us to evaluate thinking because it may temper

an otherwise hasty judgment, while, on the other hand it may cause us to thrust aside something outworn and useless for something more adequate for present living. A unit, therefore, is a vital movement capable of bringing to the individual an understanding of present living.

A unit should be conceived of in terms of the present progressive tense, not that of the past, conditional, or future. Nevertheless the functional unit must look both to the past and toward the future without being dominated by either. Understanding ought to be dynamic not static since static thought forms are bound to lead to conservatism, inertness, and decay. Fixed formulae cannot keep the forces of civilization under control, or meet new conditions, or solve new problems. We must see to it, however, that change is synonymous with progress for otherwise our efforts are in vain. The functional unit suggests continuous endeavor toward progress, not completed achievement.

A unit that is going to be of universal worth must be more than a mere school invention. It must be a tool with which to work, an organizing principle with which to think in all one's group living. It should direct our thinking toward the fundamental issues of community, national, and world living. It ought to be flexible enough so that it will not narrow, reflective or creative thinking. It should not be dogmatic nor restrictive in any way. On the contrary, it must guide, orient, integrate. It should help to organize our thinking but it must not hamper our judgments. It must be reconstructed, itself, from time to time so that it may never lose its vitality or its challenge.

HOW TO CONSTRUCT FUNCTIONAL UNITS

How are we going to construct functional units? A statement from Miller will serve as a point of departure. "A vital democracy will be realized only by carrying out the function of verbs. It cannot be done with nouns. Nouns as slogans carry too easily the vested interests of inertia. After getting a few democratic verbs in action, it is well to introduce some good phrases and nouns."¹⁹ We who are teaching social concepts may well reflect upon the relative merits of nouns and verbs as functional and dynamic challenges with which to think. The author has followed the idea suggested in the above statement but has turned to present participles for a meaningful way of expressing units of learning. In addition they are helpful in constructing sub-units, and in guiding one's thinking generally. A list of such words is given below to illustrate what the author has in mind; this list is suggestive not complete:

<i>Blazing a trail</i>	
exploring	initiating
adventuring	creating
pioneering	finding
discovering	liberating
observing	questioning
experimenting	seeking
challenging	searching
investigating	researching
reflecting	venturing
inventing	attempting
founding	revolutionizing

<i>Living with others</i>	
associating	conflicting
coöperating	controlling
sharing	depending
harmonizing	serving
contributing	aiding
participating	helping
socializing	regulating
individualizing	restraining
humanizing	compromising
internationalizing	arbitrating
nationalizing	coördinating

<i>Discovering meaning</i>	<i>Forging ahead</i>
unifying	achieving
integrating	progressing
orienting	becoming
modifying	evolving
evaluating	developing
coördinating	realizing
understanding	perfecting
comprehending	emerging
correlating	reconstructing
organizing	growing
analyzing	advancing
synthesizing	attaining
comparing	re-orienting
contrasting	re-organizing
inferring	re-building
connecting	improving
relating	mastering
testing	changing
proving	expanding
classifying	conquering
theorizing	extending
recognizing	accomplishing

How will the functional unit be constructed under actual teaching conditions? How will it work out in practice? Can it really prevent the unit idea from becoming formalized and academic? The author has no certain answers for these questions. He presents below the actual units which he has constructed and which with some modifications he uses in his classes:

A functional unit organization of World Living

1. Mastering and improving the achievements of other peoples
2. Seeking religious values in a scientific and industrial world
3. Exploring Man and Nature: adventuring into the unknown
4. Industrializing the world with power and machines
5. Participating in a capitalistic society
6. Internationalizing capitalism and national interests: imperialism
7. Pioneering with large scale communism: the Russian experiment
8. Controlling nationalism
9. Experimenting with democracy
10. Evolving a system of international law
11. Harmonizing national differences
12. Achieving international understanding

A functional unit organization of National Living

1. Evolving an American people
2. Experimenting with self government
3. Developing and controlling American nationalism
4. Harmonizing intergroup differences
5. Mastering industrialism
6. Extending American control and influence
7. Participating in international affairs
8. Achieving an American civilization

A functional unit organization of Community Living

1. Participating in community living
2. Learning to live with others

3. Becoming educated
4. Keeping physically fit
5. Maintaining interest and morale
6. Protecting ourselves and others
7. Earning a living
8. Learning to govern ourselves
9. Harmonizing our differences
10. Serving the community

*A functional unit organization of Economics**

1. Satisfying our wants
2. Producing goods
3. Exchanging goods
4. Sharing the social income
5. Striving for industrial peace and progress
6. Earning a living
7. Saving and investing
8. Keeping up with economic trends

These units represent an attempt to bring together the vital, moving social realities which compose the present stream of racial experience. They are not only movements but challenges as well. In actually thinking with these the past will merge into the present and present trends point out the direction in which we are moving. And if the challenge of each is really met a continuing mastery of the social environment will be the result.

DANGERS IN FORMULATING UNITS

Of course there are dangers which might arise in connection with the formulation and the use of these units. Appearance may be substituted for the substance. Content may be divorced from the aim. Prejudices may take the place of truths. Interpretation of the unit may be narrow and dogmatic. Standardization always has its appeal. The need for continuing mastery may be overlooked. Then, too, simplification may be necessary for certain classes and certain individuals. Merely phrasing the units in more functional language will not automatically bring about the desired changes. Unless there is a change in the outlook of both teacher and student very little of real value will be accomplished. This functional conception of the unit ought to help, however, as a step toward more vital teaching and learning in the social studies. Finally it may bring about a new orientation and a different emphasis for both student and teacher. Again, the functional idea is only as sound as the assumptions upon which it is based. These assumptions follow:

1. We live and must live in a changing world
2. Social intelligence is a present social need
3. The present can be explained by means of the past
4. It is better to aim at social intelligence directly, than indirectly or not at all
5. The school should attempt to develop social intelligence
6. Within the school curricula the social studies are best fitted to develop social intelligence
7. The social studies can be organized so that social intelligence can be developed in the student
8. Social intelligence represents understandings of realities not memorization of social facts
9. Understanding should be dynamic not static
10. Students have the mental ability to become socially intelligent

Do the American people really want their schools to develop social intelligence and follow it wherever it leads? Do our school people actually wish to make

the school an agency of social progress? It is true that we have talked about the school as an agency of civic progress but we haven't done much about it. Surely we have done little about developing an intelligent socially minded citizenry. At the present time as well as during recent years the American people do not seem to be very eager about making their schools reflective and challenging as indeed they must be if they are to be progressive.

We are faced with a changing world but are trying to meet it with fixed types of thinking. We are faced with the need of developing a critical-minded intelligent group of citizens who will bring order out of the present social chaos, but as yet we sidestep and fear intelligence. We need teacher and student understanding of what education means but are satisfied with a pseudo-understanding. We have been off on the by-paths and have forgotten the main highway. And the dilemmas of education have puzzled us. We want guidance but this may destroy initiative, we want freedom but this may lead to disorder, we want activity but this may lead to automatism. Guidance must develop individuality, freedom must be within guiding principles, activity must lead to understanding. Those who would make the functional unit, or any other technique, must recognize these dilemmas and come to terms with them.

* H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, 182. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926.

² *Ibid.*, 189.

³ H. L. Miller, *Directing Study*, 367. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922.

⁴ H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 51. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 13.

⁶ Morrison, *op. cit.*, 225-231.

⁷ H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 32.

⁸ *Ibid.*, 33.

⁹ Morrison, *op. cit.*, 186.

¹⁰ H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 29-30.

¹¹ Morrison, *op. cit.*, 230, 298.

¹² H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 53-54; *Directing Study*, 371.

¹³ H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 57.

¹⁴ H. E. Wilson, *Laboratory Manual in American History*. New York: American Book Co., 1928.

¹⁵ D. C. Bailey, *A New Approach to American History*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927.

¹⁶ R. M. Tryon and C. M. Lingley, *The American People and Nation*. New York: Ginn and Co., 1929.

¹⁷ A. F. Barnard, "Curriculum in History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, I, 92-102. Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 24. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1923.

¹⁸ H. C. Hill, "Curriculum in History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, I, 103-115. Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 24. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1923.

¹⁹ H. L. Miller, *Creative Learning and Teaching*, 178.

²⁰ Constructed with the aid of Mr. H. C. Hill.

In the *Nuova Antologia* for September 1st, Carlo Schauzer has an article on the origin of the American Constitution and George Washington in which he argues quite forcefully that were he living today, Washington would by no means advocate the international isolation which at that earlier day seemed so necessary.

Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies

VIII. Geography¹

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Of all the social studies, geography is nearest the periphery; some, indeed, place it outside the circle of such studies. The very name *geography* (literally, "description of the earth"), designates the physical rather than the social order as the proper range of subject matter. This mooring in the natural sciences is further witnessed by much of the geographer's vocabulary; north and south pole, equinoctial winds, equator, mountain system, solar time, axis,—these are obviously from the language of natural science. The historical identification of geography with such subjects as "natural history" and, later, physiography and geology has provided it a frame of reference in the realm of the physical rather than the social sciences. Yet not completely; for, through a long past, the connections of geography with man's conquests, explorations, and travels, with his development of navigation, commerce, and industry have given geography many points of reference in the structure of human society. These human imports of geographic science have been developed, especially in the forms of political and economic geography, until now this erstwhile natural science is generally understood to be a study of the earth *as the home of man and in relation to man*. This is the new geography, positively differentiated from geology and no longer treated as a physical science, but construed as the study of the social consequences of lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere. When social scientists claim a science thus defined, they seem not so much to stake a new claim as to establish one that has been already set out for them.

The problem of whether or not geography should be included among the social studies arises chiefly in the junior and senior high schools. The ideal state of affairs calls for teachers of geography who are specialists in that subject. We need not assume that teachers of history, economics, sociology, and political science are incapable of the scientific outlook; but we must grant that they are not likely to have had that varied and extensive grounding in the natural sciences which alone can insure the competence of their explanations and the vitality of their interest. The teacher of science, on the other hand, is likely to be lacking not only the requisite equipment in history,

economics, sociology, and political science, but also the synthetic viewpoint without which the new geography simply does not exist. However the matter is finally settled, a bibliography of geography is here included, not on the ground that it is properly one of the social studies, but because in practice it is sometimes so classed.

If we accept geography among the social studies, we must do so with caution. For one thing, we shall not then be justified in narrowing geography to an outlook dictated completely by the department of social studies. To do so would lead to the erasure of the distinctions of geography from history, economics, and sociology. Such erasure is not a consummation to be wished for. The existence of separate subjects has indeed been frequently decried by curriculum makers, but their real grievance was the manner in which the subjects were taught: (1) too frequently the facts and names were taught in isolation from a meaning; (2) sometimes the subject was taught seemingly for its own sake, rather than employed as a means of teaching the child; (3) the teaching was done, especially in the elementary grades, in terms of a logical, intellectual framework that was non-existent for the child; (4) the result of such teaching was that boys and girls learned only "so many positive and separate locations in life." Such complaints have force, properly, not against the existence of subjects, but against the unpedagogical use of them.

Shrewd educators must indeed see that the existence of various categories of facts (or subjects) is of value to the learner, no less than to the teacher and the scholar. For the existence of distinct subjects means, not the disunity of human experience, but rather the unification of it into a coherent body of principles; the subject, with its particular point of view, provides a mode of thinking through which a multiplicity of experience and information may be synthesized into principles. Not only do subjects thus provide for the organization of experience; but in employing distinctive points of view they provide opportunities for a varied experience.

The destruction of distinct subject-matters is therefore a consummation devoutly to be dreaded; for the result must be a decreased power to organize experience and a restricted variety of experiences. Sound pedagogy requires no such obliteration; it asks of us only that we do not expect the child to see lines

¹ The whole series of articles is now available in pamphlet form, a copy of which can be secured from the McKinley Publishing Company for thirty cents.

that have been drawn beyond the range of his psychological vision or upon a paper that he cannot see in an ink he cannot read. In the "new geography" the particular danger is that the emphasis upon commercial factors may give us a study of commerce rather than of geography. The social science teacher is by training especially liable to succumb to this tendency to the point where, from neglect of the physical groundwork proper to geography, he has unwittingly destroyed the very matter he was set to teach.

Cautions should also be set up against the fallacies that flow from the "Golden Age complex." Whenever a new pedagogical position is occupied, some people manage to see ahead a Golden Age of teaching in which will appear marvelous and unprecedented results while the humbler necessities of the learning process will disappear. But we shall not escape these necessities by our emphasis, in the new geography, on interrelationships, nor by the social science teacher's emphasis on social factors and interpretations. The view that geography is concerned with the field of interrelationships only, that the subject is itself architectonic, may lead some to believe that they can now be satisfied with teaching interpretation. Such persons should remember the necessities of our case.

In the first place, interpretations are of value to the young pupil only when they appear as an outgrowth of facts with which he is already familiar. Geography is concerned with (1) natural factors, (2) man's adaptation to these factors, and (3) the development of generalizations. It is psychologically impossible to appreciate the necessity of adaptation to the natural environment without knowing both the man who must do the adapting and the nature which necessitates the adaptation. To try to teach interpretation before the facts, therefore, leaves the pupil as much in mid-air psychologically as did the older formalized geography. In the second place, if in teaching interpretation we slight facts, we are not accustoming the pupil to discover meanings, to generalize facts and to interpret; we are accustoming him to be content with verbal knowledge and to make sweeping generalizations from a small substratum of fact. Finally, geography, like the other school subjects, still has its "tool" aspect, and the neglect of specific facts is a short-sighted kindness to the child for which both he and his teachers will later have to pay a heavy toll.

It therefore seems worth while to emphasize that the pupil who plans to learn any geography will have to learn, as his lowly teachers had to learn, some cities, mountains, and products. There is, of course, little justification for some of the catalogic textbooks, against which criticism is legitimately leveled, and there is no justification for the reduction of any subject to an unmotivated drill and the rote learning of unsignified data, merely upon the ground that the pupil will thus acquire a useful tool. On the other hand, we should not forget that learning will still require facts and drills, and that pupils will still need pressures of one kind or another. No one, not

even a student, will object to cities, mountains, and products if they serve a purpose. There is, therefore, no reason to overlook them for fear of appalling the young minds before us; nor would it be legitimate for the social science teacher to emasculate the subject itself by slighting the natural factors in favor of political, social, and economic.

The following selected reading list has been made largely from the viewpoint of the new geography, and the titles have been selected with especial reference to the needs of the social science teacher of geography. Books embodying the results of special studies cannot, however, be kept up to date, and the teacher may be expected to keep himself up to date in at least the larger affairs of current geography. This means keeping up with the periodical literature in geography. It is perhaps not too emphatic to say that every teacher of geography should subscribe for *The Journal of Geography* (A. J. Nystrom, Chicago. \$2.50), the official organ of the National Council of Geography Teachers. It appears monthly from September to May inclusive and contains materials on both geography and on methods of teaching. In the subject itself, the teacher will find helpful material in *The Geographical Review* (Broadway and 156 Street, New York. \$5.), a quarterly which is the official organ of the American Geographical Society, and in *Economic Geography* (Clark University, Worcester, Mass. \$5), a quarterly which is of particular interest for the teacher of commercial geography. Such popular magazines as the *National Geographic*, *Asia*, and *Travel* contain much illustrative and interesting matter. Various kinds of maps can be readily secured from the McKinley Publishing Co. (Philadelphia), and from Denoyer-Geppart, A. J. Nystrom, and Rand McNally (all in Chicago). The *Year-Books* of the Department of Agriculture, and publications from the Department of Commerce and the Weather Bureau are easily obtainable and should be in every school library, along with the *Atlas of American Agriculture* (Department of Agriculture).

VIII. Geography

A. Authorities

H. H. Barrows, M. T. Bingham, I. Bowman, F. K. and M. E. Branom, A. P. Brigham, J. Brunhes, Chisholm, S. W. Cushing, W. M. Davis, De Martonne, Lucien Febvre, H. B. George, A. J. Herbertson, Von Humbolt, E. Huntington, M. O. Jones, C. B. Kirchwey, Lapparent, C. Lucas, E. P. Parker, Penck, O. Peschel, Mackinder, Malte-Brun, F. Ratzel, Reclus, J. Redway, Richtshofen, Ridgley, Carl Ritter, O. Schlieter, E. C. Semple, D. Stamp, W. Sutherland, R. F. Tarr, C. Vallaux, Vidal de la Blache, H. Wagner, R. H. Whitbeck, D. S. Whittlesey.

B. Bibliography

1. Brown, R. N. Rudmose; Howarth, O. J. R.; and McFarlane, J. *The Scope of School Geography*. Oxford, Oxford University Press. 1922.

2. Ridgley, Douglas C. *Geographic Principles*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co. 1925.

The vitality of the teaching is conditioned by the teacher's possession of a philosophy of his subject. The first of these books, despite its brevity (158 pages) is full of that philosophic forcefulness which silently compels the reader to examine the foundation of his own views. The fact that it is by Englishmen (two of the authors are university lecturers in geography, the third is secretary of the British Association) does not lessen its value in this respect, for the treatment is neither insular nor narrowly professional, and examples from America abound. The authors do not draft a specific teaching program, but attempt to formulate a coherent school subject, indicating its points of contact with other subjects and finely discriminating it from both its subsidiaries and its specializations. They stress the physical basis of geography. The chapter on maps, map-reading, and map-making is condensed in treatment but comprehensive in outlook and of much practical significance. The same may be said of the treatment of such topics as climate and weather, biological factors, oceanography, and economic, historical, racial, and political geography. Clear, concrete, persuasive, and dignified.

Less eloquent and more immediately professional is Ridgley's little volume in the well known *Riverside Educational Monographs*. Presents an application of geographic principles in American elementary schools. Still a standard, by an American authority of wide influence and of varied experience. Plainly brings out the conceptions underlying the methods of present-day school geography, thus clarifying the philosophy of the "new geography." Stresses social interpretation. Brief, simply written, carefully organized, copiously exemplified. There is a detailed outline. Chapter headings include "Geographic Principles Defined and Illustrated," "Guiding Principles in Home Geography," "Geographic Principles in the Study of North America," and "Geographic Principles in the Study of North American Cities."

3. Semple, E. C. *Influence of Geographic Environment*. New York, Holt. 1911.

Based on Ratzel's *Anthropo-Geographie*, restating the principles embodied therein, amplifying some portions and abridging others. Discusses the influence of climate, physical features, and soils, citing many specific examples. A deeply serious, scholarly, and inclusive book. Fundamental.

4. Vidal de la Blache, P. *Principles of Human Geography*. Trans. by M. T. Brigham, ed. by E. de Martonne. New York, Holt. 1926.

The unfinished work of the founder of the modern French school of geography. Includes chapters on distribution of population, elements of civilization, and transportation and circulation. Has profoundly influenced the geographers of this generation.

5. Huntington, Ellsworth. *The Human Habitat*. New York, D. Van Nostrand Co. 1927.

Written to "give the layman a true idea of human geography as interpreted by the American school of

geographers." Treats such subjects as geographic and climatic effects upon the habitats of man, conditions favoring or discouraging advance in human culture, examples of maladjustment to physical environment, and reasons for the high state of civilization in Europe. Summarizes much of the material of his earlier works.

6. Von Engel, O. D. *Inheriting the Earth; or the Geographical Factor in National Development*. New York, Macmillan. 1922.

Logical, convincing, impartial. Shows that human organization and development have only partly adjusted themselves to geographic conditions. Points out the desirability of a more complete adjustment.

7. Salisbury, R. D., Barrows, H. H., and Tower, W. S. *The Elements of Geography*. New York, Holt. 1913.

Treats in detail the several elements of the natural environment, indicating specific ways in which they have influenced human activities. One of the earlier books to depart from the customary physiographic study of geography; has had far-reaching influence.

8. Farrand, Livingston. *Basis of American History*, Vol. II of the *American Nation Series*, A. B. Hart, ed. New York, Harper's. 1904.

Excellent discussion of products and resources of North America, particularly those of the United States. Useful volume for courses in geography and American history.

9. Bowman, Isaiah. *The New World*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, World Book Co. 1921.

Probably the best book available on the perplexing national and international questions of political geography.

10. Stamp, L. D. *Asia*. New York, Dutton. 1929.

One of the best surveys of Asia. Treats the continent first as a whole, then by regions. About one-third of the book is devoted to India; China and Japan receive much less attention. This proportion may not be entirely satisfactory.

11. Jones, C. F. *South America*. New York, Holt. 1930.

Probably the best presentation of South American geography in print. Thorough and scientific; informative rather than interpretive. Stresses the idea that South America is not the land of economic promise often pictured.

12. Blanchard, W. O., and Visher, S. S. *Economic Geography of Europe*. New York, McGraw-Hill. 1931.

Probably the best available work. Because of the language barrier, which makes very difficult a study of original sources, no entirely satisfactory economic geography of Europe has been written. Interesting; inclusive. Part I, dealing with the European continent as a whole, is probably the most satisfactory part of the book; Part II, about two-thirds of the book, deals with the various countries.

13. Stamp, L. D. *Africa*. New York, Longmans Green & Co. 1930.

This little handbook treats illuminatingly and au-

thoritatively a land that has not had adequate treatment.

14. Smith, J. R. *Industrial and Commercial Geography*. New York, Holt. 1925 (Revised).

Long the standard text in economic geography. Part I, about two-thirds of the book, deals with various industries. Part II is a description of the commerce of the world—its trade centers, trade routes, and commerce.

15. Lahee, A. W. *Our Competitors and Markets*. New York, Holt. 1924.

Treats the important foreign countries with which the United States has commercial relations. The questions answered about each country are (1) whether it is a competitor, (2) what are the factors making for its economic growth, stagnation, or decline, and (3) whether it is important to us politically, as a source of raw materials, or as a market for our manufactured goods.

16. Sargent, A. J. *Seaways of the Empire*. London, A. & C. Black. 1930 (second ed.).

Condensed but inclusive treatment of the chief trade routes from the standpoint of British shipping. Rather difficult reading.

17. Jones, W. D., and Whittlesey, D. S. *An Introduction to Economic Geography*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press. 1925.

Treats in detail the elements of the natural environment—climate, land forms and soils, mineral deposits, and oceans and coasts. Divided into three parts, exercises, text, and illustrations. Deserves special praise for its choice of maps, graphs, and pictures.

18. Van Hise, Charles R., and Havemeyer, L. *Conservation of Our Natural Resources*. New York, Macmillan. 1930.

Based on Van Hise's *Conservation of Natural Resources of the United States*, and written by Havemeyer, L., editor, and Rousch, G. A., Newell, F. H., and others. Various authorities write on the fields of mineral resources, water, forests, land, and wild life. The views expressed in this volume are far more op-

timistic than those in the original volume by Van Hise.

19. Leith, C. K. *World Minerals and World Politics*. New York, McGraw-Hill. 1931.

Readable, non-technical, and authoritative. "It will notably increase the appreciation of the interdependence of the various parts of the world, and the need for scientific study and farsighted policies." Emphasizes the North Atlantic in iron and coal, the importance of these in foreign trade, and the recency of such developments. Stresses the importance of the United States and England, but recognizes their dependence upon other countries.

20. Clowes, E. S. *Shipways to the Sea: Our Inland and Coastal Waterways*. Baltimore, Williams and Wilkins. 1929.

A complete consideration of the non-controversial materials about our nation's waterways.

21. Talman, C. F. *The Realm of the Air*. Indianapolis, Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1931.

The author is librarian of the United States Weather Bureau and writes daily articles in the newspapers on "Why the Weather?" Describes numerous phases of weather and its effects. Interesting, scientific, and well illustrated.

22. Kendrew, W. G. *Climate: A Treatise on the Principles of Weather and Climate*. Oxford, Oxford University Press. 1930.

A discussion for the general reader of meteorological and climatological matters. Interesting and authoritative. The author has written extensively in this field.

23. Whitbeck, R. H., and Finch, V. C. *Economic Geography*. New York, McGraw-Hill. 1924. Revised 1931.

Treats commodities or products in connection with regional geography, showing the conditions under which the agricultural staples are produced in various parts of the world, where the world's great mineral deposits are located and how they are obtained, and the conditions under which raw materials are economically produced and marketed.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, Ph.D., *Harvard University*

A Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education has coöperated with the American Political Science Association and the American Historical Association in the preparation and publication of a series of brochures intended for use in social-studies classes in elementary and secondary schools. The pamphlets are known as the *Achievements of Civilization* series and have as their purpose the cultivation of "a wide acquaintance on the part of pupils with the indebtedness of present-day society to earlier coöperative human efforts." Three brochures

have already been published and three more are in press. They are as follows:

1. *The Story of Writing*. Pp. 64.
2. *The Story of Numbers*. Pp. 32.
3. *The Story of Weights and Measures*. Pp. 32.
4. *The Story of Our Calendar*. Pp. 32 (In press).
5. *Telling Time Throughout the Centuries*. Pp. 64 (In press).
6. *Rules of the Road*. Pp. 32 (In press).

Single copies of the 32-page brochures are ten cents and of the 64-page brochures twenty cents. Twenty-

five copies or more (any combination), ten per cent discount; fifty copies or more, twenty per cent discount; four hundred copies or more twenty-five per cent discount. Address Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF FILMS

A revised list of sources of commercial and trade promotion films, available for classroom use, has recently been issued by the Motion Picture Division of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Federal Department of Commerce, in a seventeen-page pamphlet titled "Composite List of Non-theatrical Film Sources." The names and addresses of 524 concerns which have such films for distribution are listed and descriptive information is given about each of the films available. Copies of the pamphlet may be secured for ten cents each (stamps are not acceptable) from the Motion Picture Division, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D.C., or from the Bureau's district offices.

The Changing Conception of Teaching United States History and Its Influence upon the Practice of Teaching United States History in Grades VII and VIII in the Schools of Kansas is the theme of a doctoral dissertation prepared in 1932 at the University of Kansas by Elmer Birdell Gift. The first section of the thesis surveys the development of the United States history course in American schools since about 1800. Dr. Gift divides the résumé into four periods: (1) before 1861, during which a separate United States history course was gradually emerging; (2) between 1861 and 1890, during which the course became practically universal and required in American elementary schools; (3) between 1890 and 1912, during which various national committees gave the course a relative degree of stabilization; and (4) the period since 1912, in which divers reform movements and drifts have appeared. From the confusion of proposals and counter-proposals of recent years the author distinguishes a number of tendencies, among them the following: (1) the tendency to apply the methods of educational research to the construction of the social-studies curriculum; (2) the tendency to emphasize direct and practical civic values in history; (3) a tendency to organize subject matter in projects and units; (4) a tendency to emphasize problem-solving rather than rote memorization; (5) a tendency to emphasize the relations existing between historical data (chronological, geographical, causal relations, etc.) rather than merely to describe the data; (6) a tendency to break away from dependence on the textbook; and (7) a tendency toward the unification of the various social studies.

Having pointed out these tendencies Dr. Gift then surveys the United States history work in Grades VII and VIII in Kansas schools for the purpose of discovering whether, and to what extent, the tendencies apparent in educational theory as applied to the social studies are actually affecting practice. Questionnaires dealing with the preparation of teachers, the courses

offered, methods of classroom management, pupil activities, and the use of all types of teaching aids were distributed throughout the state. Usable replies were received from 821 teachers located in all types of schools. Among the many interesting and significant facts brought to light are the following: (1) the average preparation of all the teachers reporting was 46.3 weeks of college work, and less than a third of the teachers teaching history had majored or minored in history in college; (2) a majority of the teachers outline their courses somewhat on their own initiative and present the material in units or topics; the better prepared teachers are especially influenced by the major theories for reorganization of teaching materials; (3) the pupil activities assigned are largely traditional in character, with emphasis on daily assignments and lists of questions for pupils to answer; (4) "little thought is given to creating an interest in and taste for historical reading"; (5) "the reproduction of material of the text is yet the dominant way of using the class period"; (6) current events papers are widely used, especially by the less well-trained teachers; (7) activities involving the use of visual aids are common; and (8) new-type tests are used more frequently than are essay tests.

The full results of the investigation indicate that, while educational theory has affected practice in some significant aspects, there is still much to be done in improving the conditions and methods of classroom teaching.

WHY TEACH SOCIAL STUDIES?

In *School and Society* for September 17, 1932, Dr. David Snedden discusses the question "The Social Studies for What?" He fears that we are generally more concerned with the presentation of subject matter than with an analysis of the reasons for presenting it. He analyzes Charles A. Beard's *Charter for the Social Sciences*, the first volume of the report of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, with which he is disappointed. Dr. Snedden feels that the subject-matter specialists have dominated the preparation of the report and that its stated educational aim, "the preparation of rich and many-sided personalities" makes no contribution to educational philosophy or practice. He feels that the social studies, in the sense of geography, history, civics, and so on, are properly fields only for research scholars and not fields for general education. He contends that a survey of society here and now should be made, and that the social science program of the schools should be erected on the basis of the survey without regard to the traditional subjects. Dr. Snedden argues that much of our history has no contribution to make to citizens who are alive in the years from 1940 to 1980. He agrees that there may be some reason for teaching the cultural values of history but that history as such has little to contribute to civic education.

N.E.B.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

A recently published study "attempts to determine the validity of the claim that the achievements of pu-

pils in reading, language, and arithmetic have suffered" as a result of the decreased time given to them and the increased time given to such subjects as the social and natural sciences in schools organized under the junior-high-school plan. (Bancroft Beatley, *Achievement in the Junior High School*. Harvard Studies in Education, Volume 18. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts. \$2.00.) The relative gain in achievement from Grade VII through Grade IX in reading, language, arithmetic, and certain aspects of the social studies and natural sciences was examined in three pairs of school systems, a 6-3-3 and an 8-4 school in each pair. Within each of the two school systems pupils were carefully paired; to them the subtests of the *Stanford Achievement Test* (*Advanced Examination*) were given, and the results statistically interpreted.

"In none of the functions measured does the difference in gain favor consistently either the non-junior or the junior high school." While the junior high school is not demonstrably superior in respect to the traits measured, it is at least probable that the increased offering in social and natural sciences does not handicap achievement in language, arithmetic, and reading. Moreover, there is some evidence, though inconclusive, that achievement in the social studies is greater in junior than in non-junior high schools.

EDUCATING THE CONSUMER

Consumer's Research is "organized and incorporated under the laws of the State of New York as a membership corporation to provide unbiased technical information and counsel on goods bought by the ultimate consumer; not a business enterprise, not operated for profit." The organization furnishes two types of service to its members. Confidential service, which brings to its subscribers a series of bulletins analyzing in detail such varied products as automobiles and canned peas, is available at two dollars a year. *General Bulletins*, which are not confidential but which contain much specific information of value to the consumer, are available at a rate of one dollar per year in the United States. The *General Bulletins* are prepared especially to meet the needs of libraries and school classes which deal with economics of the consumer. The organization also makes available certain selected pamphlets, both confidential and general, to school and colleges classes which subscribe for them as a group; the cost is one dollar per person. Full information may be secured by addressing *Consumer's Research, Inc.*, 24 West 25th Street, New York City.

A *Work Guide in American History* for senior high schools, prepared by Howard B. Wilder, Head of History Department in the Melrose, Massachusetts, High School, under the editorship of Francis T. Spaulding, has recently appeared from the press of Houghton Mifflin Company. (List price \$.60.) It arranges the American history course in a series of ten units: The Discovery of a New World, 1000-1607; The Fulfillment of a Vision, 1607-1775; The Establishment of a New Nation, 1763-1789; Our National Government; The Achievement of Our Independence, 1789-1814;

America Tries Her Strength, 1814-1840; Expansion and Conflict, 1840-1865; The Beginnings of Modern America, 1865-1898; The United States Becomes a World Power, 1898-1920; and Whither Are We Bound?

For each unit of work are given (1) an introductory motivating overview, (2) assignment references in a number of textbooks, (3) leading questions to aid pupils in studying the assignments, (4) Lists of important, dates, (5) lists of minimum activities or "things to do," and extensive lists of suggested supplementary activities, and (6) pretests and final tests for each unit. There are extensive map and chart and diagram exercises, and well-selected bibliographies.

The *Work Guide* embodies most of the best characteristics of workbooks as developed in recent years. Its units are defensible; its exercises are activities and unusually well motivated. In format the book is well made, and its pages are punched and perforated to facilitate its use in connection with a history notebook.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

Superintendent John Lund of Norwalk, Connecticut discusses the problem of character education in an article in the *New York Times* for August 29, 1932, and presents the procedures and principles which have been developed in an effort to solve the problem in the Norwalk schools. He writes, "We need more and more to see the child whole and appreciate that every contact, every experience, and every environmental factor has its important bearing. The problem immediately becomes not a school problem alone but ramifies throughout the community. The school is a strategic center from which the process may develop." He summarizes four lines of procedure developed in Norwalk as follows:

1. Courses in the philosophy and techniques of character education were made available to ninety-five per cent of the teachers.
2. In the classroom, pupil activity was recognized as an important factor and the attention of the teacher was focused on "integrated personality" rather than the acquisition of book knowledge.
3. A conscious effort was made to avoid developing any special scheme or formula by which good character might be developed.
4. The help of the community was enlisted through discussion groups, child welfare organizations, Chamber of Commerce, and the various organizations for juvenile welfare.

G.W.M.

Maurice Coppens compares the viewpoint of the youth of Germany and the youth of France in an article appearing in the *Grande Revue* for June. Very aptly he calls attention to the error made by the allies in assuming that the reparations demanded of Germany is for penance and not simply a matter of equity, for, as he argues, despite her undeniable hardships, Germany has not had the problem of devastated territory such as France and Belgium and Italy have found so serious.

Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, *Columbia University*

Political Leaders of Upper Canada. By William Smith.

Thomas Nelson, Toronto, 1931. xxxii, 292 pp. \$3.00

Responsible Government in Canada. By R. W. Langstone. J. M. Dent, Toronto, 1931. xi, 241 pp. \$3.50

The Founding of Churchill. Edited by J. F. Kenney. J. M. Dent, Toronto, 1932. x, 213 pp. \$2.50

If I Were King of Canada. By Oliver Stowell. J. M. Dent, Toronto, 1931. 173 pp. \$1.50

Some Educational Factors Affecting the Relations between Canada and the United States. By A. A. Hauck. Easton, Pa., 1932

In England Today. By Lukin Johnston. J. M. Dent, London, 1931. x, 214 pp. \$2.50

The late William Smith was deputy archivist for Canada and during the last years of his life he assembled the fruits of his calendaring of Canadian State Papers and his wide acquaintance with the contemporary British history in the form of the ten essays on political leaders which are now gathered together in one volume. His book deserves a place beside Miss Dunham's *Political Unrest in Upper Canada* (Longmans, Green) on the shelf of any student of the Canadian agitation which produced the Second British Empire. The sketches are not only well-informed, but are judicious and shrewd. There is no parade of learning, but, as the introduction illustrates, a remarkably inconspicuous weaving together of hard-won significant fact to form persuasive theses. The only defects are some repetition from essay to essay, occasionally over-cautious judgments, and the prosiness which comes from abbreviated reproduction of important despatches.

The figures treated are Governor Simcoe, the Imperial visionary who hoped to make Upper Canada so attractive an exemplar of British institutions that the United States would seek reunion after 1791; Robert Gourlay, the Scottish radical and social reformer whose single-minded, but perverse agitations ended in his expulsion; J. B. Robinson, the die-hard Tory of Virginian Loyalist stock, who was a consummate judge but a narrow statesman; W. L. Mackenzie, journalist, reformer and rebel who shook the lethargic Upper Canadians out of their political apathy; Sir Francis Bond Head, the strange megalomaniac governor, who laid down the law to the Colonial Office as well as to the Colonials; Bishop John Strachan, the apostate Presbyterian who educated the governing oligarchy and fought vainly to make Church and State Anglican; Egerton Ryerson, the apostate from Anglicanism to Methodism who outshone Strachan as a statesman, but could not make his anti-partisan views understandable to his friends or enemies; Sir George Arthur, who succeeded Head, "mopped up" after the rebellion and worked with Durham and Sydenham although he disagreed with him; and Lord Durham himself in his Canadian ex-

perience and the Canadian reception of his Report. While all the sketches contain unfamiliar matter, those of Mackenzie and Durham alone are largely novel, the former because it is more honest than most in showing what an intolerable person he was, and the latter for its maintenance of Smith's view (in spite of Chester New's *Lord Durham*) that Durham's record is explainable to a large degree in terms of his egotism, self-confidence and belief in display and dash.

Sir Raymond Beazley says in his foreword to Miss Langstone's book: "This excellent little study . . . is one of the best pieces of Historical Research which has been done in the University of Birmingham in recent years." If that is really so and not merely a piece of generosity, Birmingham had better mend its ways. It is hard to think of a subject in British Imperial history which has been more thoroughly examined than Canadian Responsible Government. Most of the sources have been printed and there are excellent secondary accounts. There was little new for a student to say and this book is full of echoes, not all of which were admitted until some wise afterthought made the authoress paste in an extra series of acknowledgements to Kennedy, Lucas, Morison and Wallace "not, perhaps, sufficiently stressed in the footnotes." Perhaps Miss Langstone was not entirely to blame. Birmingham seems to have been ignorant or careless or both. She does provide some novel and interesting matter from the contemporary British history. It would have been much wiser had she written a shorter book on British attitudes towards the attainment of responsible parliamentary government in the colonies.

Dr. Kenney of the Public Archives of Canada has edited, most meticulously the journal in which Capt. James Knight of the Hudson's Bay Company recorded his labors in 1717 to set up a trading factory at Jens Munck's old wintering-place at the mouth of the Churchill River. The journal is interesting chiefly as a reflection of the stern conditions under which the Company's more vigorous servants worked. More than half of the volume is given over to a methodical outline history by the editor of Hudson Bay from its discovery down to 1783, based upon the known source materials. The history of the region is still imperfectly and partially known, but now, thanks to the Champlain Society, the Public Archives of Canada and the Company itself, we seem to be on the brink of getting something better than the romantic narratives hitherto available. Dr. Kenney's bibliographical note provides an excellent introduction to the materials in manuscript and in print which are at present available.

Mr. Stowell's book tells of how on February 28, 1931, he was chosen by lot to be King or dictator of a despairing Canada. In a series of "proclamations" or chapters he describes the steps to be taken to remedy the past and accommodate the future. He also

explains the existing situation simply and with a good deal of knowledge and sense. His device allows him to indicate briefly and often forcibly the kinds of collectivistic controls which he believes Canada to need. They include: a high levy on income, control of credit, economic planning, nationalization of banks, public regulation of public utilities and monopolies, a national advisory council of education, social insurance, and so on. He carefully refrains from outright socialism, but leans heavily on fundamental social controls.

Dean Hauck's book is the production of a fairly broad investigation by questionnaire and examination in the schools of Canada and the United States. His findings are not novel, although sometimes quite startling in detail, but they corroborate the general opinion that Canadians know a good deal about the United States and Americans almost nothing about Canada.

Mr. Lukin Johnston left England at the age of eighteen and lived in Canada for about twenty-five years. He used the occasion of a recent visit to England to record the impressions of eyes and perceptions sharpened by absence. He writes easily and intimately about everything from inns to the Lord Mayor's banquet and his chapters, while especially interesting to Canadians, should also give Americans shrewd glimpses of present-day England. The conversations which Mr. Johnston records, as held with all manner of people, are sometimes more revealing than his own soliloquies.

B.

A History of Geographical Discovery and Exploration. By J. N. L. Baker. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, n.d. [1932]. 544 pp., \$4.00

Mr. Baker says that his book "lays claim to be little more than a compilation." To this two rejoinders can be made. First, that it is an extraordinary feat even to compile the whole historic record of discovery and exploration from ancient to modern times. Second, even if his chapters occasionally becomes the catalogues he apologises for, he has succeeded to a remarkable degree, considering the space at his disposal, in giving them and indeed his whole book some interpretative unity.

The book was designed as a single work of reference for students reading honors courses in geography in England. Presumably it will be used elsewhere chiefly for reference. Its separate chapters make reference easy and their outlines are supplemented by very useful bibliographical apparatus. To a considerable degree Mr. Baker gives life to his narrative by short extracts from the original narratives and these often indicate the flavor to be expected in the narratives themselves.

Naturally, such a work had to be dependent on secondary works. In general they have been well-chosen, at least in the fields with which the reviewer is familiar. Yet without being captious, it might be said that Mr. Baker places great reliance, on the whole justified, on the publications of the Hakluyt Society. Yet the editing of those volumes, particularly in the first series, is not always expert or accurate. Again,

the *Geographical Journal* is much more heavily drawn upon than non-English periodicals. It is unfortunate that much of the best recent work on American exploration has not yet emerged from the historical journals to be included in synthetic treatments, so that Mr. Baker should not be blamed for some sketchiness in dealing with some North American exploration. The work of V. W. Crane and L. P. Kellogg is commended to his attention and he might find Justin Winsor's *Cartier to Frontenac* and *The Mississippi Basin* more usable than the *Narrative and Critical History*.

B.

Russia. By Dr. Hans von Eckardt. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1932, 711 pp., \$7.50.

Dr. Eckardt in his 711-page book, replete with countless headings and subheadings on topics ranging from "Barbarism" to "Church music," attempts to present a picture of Russia's development and existence, which, we are informed, is not based "upon the establishment of any particular point of view, any verdict, favorable or unfavorable, or final summing up" (p. X Preface). However, von Eckardt's central points, such as: that if Russia had fully appreciated German "Kultur" and had not cut herself free from German influence, the former would not have fallen, under the guise of a U.S.S.R. into "the present state of relapse into barbarism" (p. IX, Preface); his insistence that Russia under the Norsemen, under the Tartars and under the Bolsheviks, "has in all essentials remained very much the same" (p. 9), and that the "revolutionary tactics themselves produced those factors which caused the revolution to collapse into murder and brigandage" (p. 206),—all fully reveal that he is not writing in the manner of a dispassionate chronicler of events. He has too many axes to grind.

From the outset the author takes pains to show the virtues of the Varangian princes, and generally of those of German descent. These princes, primarily pirates, slave-holders and slave traders, are treated as heroes and adventurers. Despotism and cruelty, the author is all too ready to ascribe to the Mongolian influence. The none-too-refined method of achieving certain ends through matricide, patricide and other varieties of murder as practised with such monotonous regularity by the Holstein-Gottorp dynasty, rulers of Russia since the middle of the 18th century, provides a serious exception to Dr. Eckardt's thesis. The Holstein princes and princesses with their numerous cohorts, from the stable-man variety of Biren of Curland to Catherine, the German maid and wife of Peter the Great, could not treat Russia like a conquered province because, Dr. Eckardt assures the reader, of "their innate sense of law and State" (p. 66). However, the Russian people out of sheer ungratefulness, it would seem, could not swallow this peculiar brand of "innate sense of law" which expressed itself in the fusion of a swashbuckling German Tzarism with the native Russian variety.

As wielded by Eckardt, the historical method of accounting for Soviet Russia's emergence in the light of past events, yields some strange results. He posits

the conclusion that because the Pugachev, Decembrist, Terrorist and 1905 movements provided no crucible wherein a new Russia could be shaped—any such revolutionary movement was sterile, and “simply runs away to waste.” Thus an unsuspecting reader might be led to conclude that what holds together Russia before 1917 and after is the rather substantial binding of von Eckardt’s volume. For can one accept the interpretation of a century of Russian revolutionary movement in terms of “waste” when even the author is forced to conclude that the “Decembrists anticipated the leading intellectual tendencies and political ideals of the next two generations” (p. 126), . . . despite their momentary failure. In his explanation of the causes of their failure in terms of “they knew how to suffer and die but not how to act” (p. 126), he echoes the calumny built up against the character of the Russian people by Russian writers who cared least about this same people. On the contrary, one has more reason to believe that this first and virtually last attempt toward a bourgeois revolution in Russia came to an end because the leaders of the Decembrists realized that “in Moscow alone there were ninety thousand serfs ready to take up the knife.” In other words, it failed because of the fear of too much action, because of the shadow of another Pugachev uprising.

Von Eckardt, as is easy to gather from his book, is not imbued with any revolutionary ideas. A constitutional monarchy would do for him. And when he translates his bias into an appraisal of a century of revolutionary movement, it results in wholesale condemnation. Revolution, considered synonymous with destruction, “could not change that which it acted upon” (p. 205). Soviet Russia is viewed with horror (despite his last minute attempt to moderate that attitude) “for it was impossible (*no less so now*) for actions in themselves sinful and negative to produce a purifying and emancipating effect” (p. 206). He therefore sees in underground revolutionary activities a force which corrupts all action, just as in the revolution of 1905 he sees little more than a “noisy outcry” (p. 259) and in the great work of Alexander Herzen, “the rage of a politician of illegitimate though noble birth, to whom entry in exclusive society was denied” (p. 217). Although conscious that fundamental social changes do not grow out of brief-cases, he nevertheless insists on minimizing the significance of the movement of 1905, all too willing to forget that that event in its “failure” was what Pokrovsky called a “broken nose without which one cannot become a boxer.”

Dr. von Eckardt admits that the October Revolution has been succeeding in its effort to make the mass of people work and create. But to mitigate the effect of such an admission, he proceeds to employ a “check-and-balance” form of argument which he uses with mechanical precision throughout the book. In every instance he seems to have at hand a precise negative effect for every positive effect. Thus we see him argue that while it is true that the October Revolution released great, hidden positive forces, it is just as true in his opinion that Soviet Russia is in a stage akin to barbarism. It is not to be denied that only with the

advent of the October Revolution has the great mass of Russian people been slowly coming of age, but, he counters, it is also true that the people in Soviet Russia are still “thoroughly scared” (p. 12) and ruled over by an autocratic dictatorship. “The Soviet system,” he asserts, “has overstrained itself; the class-conscious proletariat . . . now that it has to go hungry . . . cannot understand the purpose of its victory . . . and so the vast machinery of the Communist State, . . . is beginning to run down” (p. 423). “But,” he maintains in the next paragraph, “it would be wrong to say that the mighty structure of the Soviet State . . . is built on sand” (p. 423). While it may be true that the October Revolution brought about the creation of a proletarian state, the aim of this state, the author hastens to inform his readers, is only to maintain its power and not to protect the rights and privileges of the workers and peasants. Von Eckardt reduces the entire 14 year existence of the Soviet Union into Leninism of the earlier period with the “utter impossibility of his utopian ideas” (p. 10), and Stalinism of the latter period with the success of his concreteness and matter-of-factness as expressed in the achievements of the Five Year Plan he created. But here again, we find that while the Plan signifies “construction, work, peace” (p. 16) at the same time he contends that in its name violence and murder are being visited on the workers and peasants. And so it is that instead of finding in this work of a self-professed historian a sober and scholarly appraisal of events, we are met with an array of dogmatic pronouncements, many of which will not stand up under close scrutiny.

W. LADEJINSKY

New York City.

The Suez Canal. By Charles W. Hallberg, Ph.D. Columbia University Press, New York, 1931. 434 pp. \$5.25.

In the writing of this volume there were two main purposes in the author’s mind: first, “to present an historical survey of the Suez route from ancient times to the present,” and second, “to show its importance as a factor in European diplomacy.” Besides these two major aims, several minor ones were likewise present: “an attempt is also made to set forth the financial and commercial development of the Canal, its strategic importance and the attempts to give it a secure juridical status.” This is surely a large order to undertake in a single volume, but, on the whole, it is executed successfully.

Mr. Hallberg has been indefatigable in his research. He has collected a tremendous volume of material, both published and unpublished, bearing on the history of the Suez route and its diplomatic importance. The narrative which has been woven out of this material extends from the time of the Pharaohs, with their interest in a system of fresh water canals, to the seemingly insoluble conflict between British imperial needs and the demands of Egyptian nationalism. It explores the casual interest of western Europe in the Suez route during late medieval and early modern times and the importance of Napoleon I in stimulating that in-

terest. It dilates at great length on the history and diplomacy of the period prior to de Lesseps's concession (1854). It recounts the story of English obstruction and of French support. It deals not too successfully with the abandonment of British opposition. In two good chapters Disraeli's *coup* and the subsequent occupation of Egypt by British troops are covered. The last section of the volume deals with the attempts at neutralization of the Canal, its strategic importance, the Canal during the Great War, and Egyptian independence and the Canal.

It is obvious that comprehensiveness is one of the merits of this book. It will be valuable to the historian and scholar as a reference work. It is safe to say that not a single important aspect of the whole complicated question has been left uncovered here. Not the least valuable part of the material is contained in a series of five appendices: shipping through the Canal; receipts, tolls, and charges; the question of renewing the concession; the "Neutralization" Convention of 1888; and a detailed bibliography.

Completeness has been obtained, however, at the expense of balance and of interest. The exigencies of method have made perseverance in the collection of material a virtue as well as a necessity. But they have resulted, it is feared, in the devotion of too much space to the pre-concession period (ten of the twenty chapters deal with this phase of the subject). One is inclined to believe that a better balance might have been achieved if much of this material could have been relegated to foot notes or appendices.

Moreover, as a consequence of a rigid adherence to technique too much faith has been put in printed documents and too little in those impalpable yet powerful personal forces which motivate actors in international politics. In historical writing emotional and psychological factors, although often impossible of exact appraisal, are coming to be regarded in something like their true significance. Mr. Hallberg, however, has not seen fit to view his events and his characters from this angle. A few more personality sketches similar to that of de Lesseps (pp. 114-16) would have added much to the interest of the story. And, in general, a more extensive recognition of the rôle of personality in the shaping of events would have produced a less ponderous style than that which now characterizes the work.

Despite these criticisms of method, it is gratifying to hear some plain speaking on such subjects as the real value of the "Neutralization" Convention of 1888 (ch. xvii) and the possibility of reconciling Egyptian independence with British protection of the Canal.

DONALD C. BLAISDELL

Williams College

William Prynne, A Study in Puritanism. By Ethyn Williams Kirby. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1931. 228 pp. \$2.50.

The lack of attention from which the seventeenth century has suffered during the past few decades displays itself no more clearly than in the dearth of biographies of the men of thought. Studies of certain men of action have abounded, but those men whose

ideas often stimulated or justified the career of the "doers" have been generally neglected. This omission as applied to Prynne is almost ironical when the variety of his interests and services, not the least of which were historical, is remembered. Mrs. Kirby has undertaken to fill this particular gap and our appreciation of the complex factors of the seventeenth century upheaval in England is greatly augmented as a result.

The author's estimate of her subject takes the form of a straightforward account of Prynne's major activities, with the characteristics neither of a psychograph nor of a definitive biography. Rather it is an excellent introduction to the life and contributions of the "ornery" lawyer, parliamentarian, pamphleteer, antiquarian, and puritan whom Milton dubbed "Marginal" Prynne from the forest of references with which he decorated the margins of his learned treatises.

Beginning with a sketch of the environment in which Prynne grew to maturity and a few notes on his early puritanical pamphlets, Mrs. Kirby carries him through the struggle with Laud and with Independency to his last years as pensioner of Charles II. Without stopping by the way she illustrates both his character and his point of view by his loyalties and his hates as expressed in the flood of pamphlets which he wrote. Mrs. Kirby has attempted no systematic analysis of Prynne's theories nor has she related those theories to the general history of law and politics. Indeed such a task would be most difficult in view of the immediate and controversial nature of nearly everything from Prynne's pen. Nevertheless, Mrs. Kirby has not given us a colorless biography. She obviously grew to like Prynne for all his cantankerousness, and after all he was a "character" with his learning, his industry, and, not least, his puns. Any man who could render the initial letters of "Seditious Libeller" with which he was branded as "Scars of Laud" was more than an ordinary Puritan.

Mrs. Kirby has placed students of the seventeenth century greatly in her debt by this book, of which one of the most valuable features is the extensive biographical apparatus.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri.

A History of Europe from 1494 to 1610. By A. J. Grant. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932. ix, 572 pp. \$6.50.

The statement that "history varies with historians" may seem to be a truism, yet one seldom reads history without discovering that the phrase has a vital meaning. The advocates of the "new history" are many and vocal, but apparently Professor Grant is not among them. In a history of Europe of the sixteenth century, the author has seen fit to place the main emphasis upon the internal politics and dynastic wars of the ruling families of Europe. The approach to the subject is chronological and analysis and synthesis are lacking throughout the book. Such matters as social life, art, science, and the dominant economic theories of the period are dismissed in a page or two, while religious

wars and dynastic intrigues occupy the largest portion of the book. Thus, Professor Grant states that the death of Gaston de Foux, whom he considered a military genius, was of much importance for the history of Europe. On the other hand, the name of Laffemas is barely mentioned and the lives and works of Copernicus, Tycho Brahé, Kepler, and Galileo are summed up in a sentence or so.

In his explanation of historical events, Professor Grant is particularly weak. He overlooks the importance of the rise of the bourgeoisie and in dealing very briefly with overseas expansion, he admits that it might be interesting to trace the effects of the expansion on Europe but fails to find space for it. In his discussion of the Peasants' Revolt, he speaks of the rise in prices but fails to tell what caused such a rise. "Mercantilism" is a word apparently unknown to Professor Grant, for he ignores it throughout his history.

Misplacing of emphasis is not the only fault of this volume. It might be well to inquire why Professor Grant's definition of "Europe" includes Turkey and Russia while it excludes England. Perhaps the "History of Continental Europe" might be a better title for his book. Besides this, the author makes several statements which the student of history might be inclined to question. For instance, he writes of "Spanish characteristics" which were nascent in the sixteenth century (page 23) and of Spain's "Character" (page 488). An anthropologist might caution Professor Grant about the use of such terms.

The book is not particularly noteworthy from the point of view of style. The general tone of the work is flat and might be improved by judicious quotation from the sources. Tenses are shifted with dangerous frequency and the habit of continuously using the conjunctions "and" and "but" at the beginning of sentences and paragraphs is unfortunate. There are other faults which might have been avoided. "Haarlem" is spelled "Harlem" on page 120, but correctly on page 408. On page 260, the author gives Imbart de la Tour as a reference, but the name of his work is omitted.

The references at the end of each chapter are good, but the latest works in the field are conspicuous by their absence. Unforgivable omissions from the bibliography are Preserved Smith's *Age of the Reformation*, his *Erasmus*, and Henri Sée's *Modern Capitalism: Its Origin and Evolution*. The book concludes with an appendix of three unimportant documents and an inadequate index which impairs the value of the book as a work of reference for the political and dynastic events of the sixteenth century.

JAMES M. EAGAN

New York City

American Foreign Policy in Mexican Relations. By James Morton Callahan. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. x, 644 pp. \$4.00.

This thorough and scholarly treatment of an important field of American foreign policy fills a long felt need. American students have been given studies which emphasized the more striking phases of our Mexican policy, but lack of balance prevailed. The

missions of our first minister, Joel Poinsett, and his successors prior to the Mexican War are thoroughly treated. The intricate negotiations for transit of the isthmus, and for additional purchase of land, before and after the Gadsden treaty, are traced with frequent quotations from instructions and diplomatic reports. The border troubles coinciding with our reconstruction period, and relations with the long Diaz dictatorship, are given space in a manner corrective of faulty stress. This does not mean, however, that the diplomacy of the Mexican War, of Seward and the Maximilian incident, or the more recent revolutionary period are slighted, for they are given the same painstaking attention.

The author has attempted to illuminate the story of diplomatic relations by data regarding the principal personalities involved, which is at times important, but also frequently tends to encumber an already weighty narrative. Little background material is introduced, making it necessary for the reader to be well versed in both American and Mexican national history. There can be no doubt of the objectivity of the author in the treatment of his materials, and yet one cannot escape the conviction that it is a one sided story; that the historian of Mexican foreign policy in American relations should also be given a hearing.

The documentation indicates reliance upon the published documents and archives of the United States for most statements. There is apparently no attempt by the author to check by a similar research in the Mexican sources. The lack of a bibliography is a weakness, in the opinion of the reviewer, although the chapter references supply a few titles. A comprehensive index will make this most valuable as a work of reference.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College

Book Notes

Two more volumes in the *Berkshire Studies in European History* are now available, the first covering the era of the last five Romanoffs, and the second dealing with the revolutions of 1917 and the subsequent Soviet structure. Professor Karpovich divides his work (*Imperial Russia, 1801-1917*, Henry Holt, 1932, 106 pp.) into the formation of the Russian empire during the first half of the nineteenth century, followed by a section on the period of reaction and reform under the second and third Alexanders. The "constitutional experiment" of the years 1905 to 1917 concludes the work. As one may gather from the above, the work deals primarily with the internal development of Russia except when the foreign policy effects the domestic situation.

The second work (*The Russian Revolution, 1917-1931*, Henry Holt, 1932, 133 pp.) is, in the reviewer's opinion, the more interesting since it allows the author, George Vernadsky, to stamp his reflections on, and reactions to, the Soviet régime. Mr. Vernadsky takes nothing for granted; instead of picking up the story where Mr. Karpovich left off, he gives the reader a good-size thumbnail sketch of the background of the

revolutions and their immediate causes, then a glance at the revolutions themselves, and concludes the work with some acute observations on the "dictatorship" of the Bolsheviks. This change, "possibly the greatest social upheaval which history has recorded," resulted in a dictatorship "much more ruthless than the imperial autocracy" and was headed by a man (Lenin) who had far more qualifications to fill the rôle of dictator than did Nicholas II. The author must necessarily be fleeting in his examination of the balance sheet of the Soviets, but in the limited space, he has presented a very readable work. He urges that whatever conclusions one may draw regarding the work of the Soviets, it must be tentative in scope, since the final stages of the experiment are yet to be reached.

A.C.F.W.

To most students the subject of this monograph has had a place only in the history of diplomacy and as the husband of the illustrious Dorothy Osborne, but Dr. Clara Marburg in *Sir William Temple: A Seventeenth Century "Libertin"* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1932. xviii, 128 pp. \$2.00) has extensively increased our knowledge of his activities. The architect of the Triple Alliance of 1668 here gives way to the moral philosopher, the historian, and the critic who enjoys an intellectual eminence in his own right. Intellectually Temple was neither first rate nor a specialist; rather he was a dilettante who played not too strenuously with many of the ideas, literary, historical, or scientific that were current in his day. Because of this he deserves real attention, for he may be said to mirror far more accurately than the philosopher or the scientist the ideas and beliefs of enlightened society. This is not to imply that Temple necessarily reflects all, or even the dominant, ideas of his times, but merely states that he represents certain points of view better than the specialist. As a moral philosopher he is a devotee of Epicurus expressing in this allegiance the influence of the great scientific activity of his day. Historically he anticipates Spengler, as he himself had often been anticipated, in his belief in the rise and fall of civilizations. Critically he is a good Englishman explaining various aspects of English literature by reference to the historical development of the English nation. Penetrating all these points of view is a certain quiet fatalism, characteristic of a man who feels that on the basis of his experience, belief in progress is both unjustified and naive. C. F. MULLETT.

Every student of history will be glad to know that the manual of historical literature, the machinery for which was set in motion by the American Historical Association at its annual meeting in 1919 has at last seen the light of day. Appearing under the title *A Guide to Historical Literature* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931. XXVIII, 1222 pp.) and the editorship of George M. Dutcher, William H. Allison, Sidney B. Fay, Augustus H. Shearer and Henry R. Shipman, it in reality supplements the manual of Professor C. K. Adams, published in 1882. Inasmuch as it covers the whole field of history it is obvious that

many titles had to be omitted. Nevertheless the editors have achieved great success in making available a carefully chosen list of books in each of the several fields, and furnishing the reader with a critical evaluation of each book mentioned. Its value is greatly enhanced by the fact that in addition to diplomatic and political history it includes sections listing works on economic, social, religious and cultural history. Carefully selected lists of biographies are also included. This stout volume should prove very useful to every student of history.

The North Carolina Historical Commission has brought out in book form the *Public Papers and Letters of Angus Wilton McLean, Governor of North Carolina 1925-1929*. (Raleigh, 1931. XXVII, 921 pp.). These are arranged chronologically under proper heads. A biographical sketch of Governor McLean, prepared by Mr. William H. Richardson, is also included. The volume which is in keeping with the other publications of the North Carolina Historical Commission was edited by David Leroy Corbitt.

Two books which every person interested in the future of America should read and ponder over are *America's Way Out: A Program for Democracy* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931. IX, 324 pp.) by Norman Thomas, leading exponent of Socialist doctrine in the United States and *Concentration of Control in American Industry* (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1931. XVI, 501 pp.) by Harry W. Laidler, for many years Executive Director of the League for Industrial Democracy and at present President of the National Bureau of Economic Research. Mr. Thomas who is one of the most penetrating critics of America's social-economic-political order begins his volume with an examination and evaluation of the present capitalistic organization of society and indicates clearly and fearlessly its shortcomings and the urgent necessity for change. He then points out very specifically what seems to him to be the only remedy for our societal defects—namely, Socialism. Communism he rules out largely because it denies civil liberty and is dictatorial in its policies and methods. The principles of Socialism as they would be applied in the United States are set forth in detail.

Mr. Laidler's compact and scholarly volume describes in comprehensive fashion the extent of concentration of control in the main branches of American industry. After an introductory chapter dealing with the rise of the great corporations the author describes the merger and combined movements among our natural resources—oil, iron, coal, copper, aluminum, lumber, water-power and other basic industries. He then describes the present-day control in the telephone, telegraph, cable, radio, railroad, steamship, electrical, gas, water supply, and other "natural monopolies" which receive franchises from the city, state, and nation. Part IV of the book deals with significant developments in our manufacturing and miscellaneous industries. Part V is devoted to Finance, Marketing. This volume should prove indispensable.

The publishing house of F. S. Crofts and Company announce the publication of another volume in the *Landmarks in History* series, edited by Bernadotte E. Schmitt. This is entitled *Alliance and Entente, 1871-1914*, edited by George B. Manhart of DePauw University. In appraising a source book of ninety pages on so voluminous a subject as the formation of the two major pre-war alliances, one must appreciate the task set before the editor in judiciously selecting sufficient material to give not only an intelligible picture of the principal events, but also a proper weight to the material which is used. Not only has Mr. Manhart drawn from the collections of documents available, but also from the autobiographies and memoirs that have appeared, a really difficult task. This work explains only what its title indicates, namely, the formations of the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. As the editor carefully points out, other aspects of diplomatic history, as the several crises caused by events in the Near East, the Moroccan affairs, and the interests of Europe outside the continent which helped to crystallize the pre-war alignments, will have to be sought elsewhere. But for the period and the material it aims to present, it will prove adequate for the general student of diplomatic history. A.C.F.W.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August, and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1932.

County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 411, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editors, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING Co., 1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, 6901 Germantown Ave., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

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Recent Books on World History. A. F. Hattersley (*History*, July).

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 Defense of the Kansas Frontier, 1866-1867. M. H. Garfield (*Kansas Historical Quarterly*, August).
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